

**Academic Writing in an EAP Course:
A Pragmatic and Critical Approach to Needs Analysis**

Shahrul Nizam Bin Mohd Basari

A thesis submitted to satisfy the requirements of the University of
Sheffield for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

August 2018

Abstract

Academic writing in higher education has been the subject of increasing attention by many researchers. The importance of writing has driven many studies in the area of teaching and learning, including English for Academic Purposes (EAP). This thesis reports the findings of a case study investigating academic writing in the context of EAP with regard to student writing needs in an academic writing course, namely English for Academic Writing (EAW), at a language centre in IIUM, a public university in Malaysia. The study juxtaposes the needs analysis and rights analysis approaches. The participants in the study were lecturers from a language centre, lecturers from the engineering and human science faculties, and students from those faculties who were doing an English for academic writing course at the language centre. The research design for the study is the complementarity mixed-method design. Questionnaires and interviews were used to obtain the data. The findings from the needs analysis on academic writing in EAW reveal that the majority of the EAW lecturers and students have a positive view towards the EAW course. The EAW lecturers, the faculty lecturers and the students felt that writing research reports was important in the faculties, as indicated by the target situation analysis (TSA). Most of the EAW lecturers, engineering lecturers, engineering students and human sciences students perceived research writing skills as their present situation needs (PSA). In addition, there was a consistency between their present needs (PSA) and their target needs (TSA). However, human sciences lecturers believed that students needed more improvement in their basic language skills due to their current writing problems (PSA) to achieve a higher level of language proficiency (TSA). Finally, evidence of power relations was discovered from the perceptions of the stakeholders in the study. They are divided into two main themes: power struggles and power relationships.

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, all praise to Allah the Almighty for giving me the strength and blessing to complete this study.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my sponsor, the Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia and my university, the International Islamic University Malaysia for giving me the opportunity to pursue my doctoral degree. I would also like to thank the Dean of the language centre (CELPAD), the Dean of the Engineering faculty, and the Dean of the Islamic Revealed Knowledge and Human Sciences faculty, IIUM for their full cooperation while I was conducting this study. I am especially indebted to the course coordinator of EAW as well as the EAW, engineering and human sciences lecturers and students for their great help in the administrative and technical aspects of the study.

I would like to extend my special appreciation and thanks to Dr. Valerie Hobbs and Dr. Oksana Afitska of the School of English, University of Sheffield for their advice and supervision throughout my whole project.

Finally, to my parents and individuals who have contributed directly or indirectly towards the completion of this study, my loving wife – Nur Zaiti Zainal Abidin, and children, Muhammad Shameyl Haikal, Muhammad Shahed Naufal and Zahra Jazmyne – this study could have never been completed without their patience, encouragement, and prayers.

Thank you

Author's Declaration

I declare that the work contained within this document is my own,
unless otherwise stated in the body of the text.

August 2018

Contents

Abstract.....	1
Acknowledgements	2
Author's Declaration	3
CHAPTER ONE.....	12
INTRODUCTION	12
1.1 Introduction	12
1.2 The Contextual Background.....	13
1.2.1 IIUM and English language.....	13
1.2.2 The EAW course.	14
1.3 Statement of the Problem	16
1.3.1 Direction and motivation.....	17
1.4 Significance of the Study.....	22
1.5 Thesis Organisation.....	24
CHAPTER TWO.....	25
LITERATURE REVIEW	25
2.1 Introduction	25
2.2 From ESP to EAP.....	26
2.3 Academic Writing in EAP.....	33
2.4 EAP: EGAP and ESAP.....	36
2.5 EAP: Study Skills, Academic Socialisation and Academic Literacies	41
2.5.1 The study skills model.....	42
2.5.2 The academic socialisation model.....	44
2.5.3 The academic literacies model.	47
2.6 EAP: Pragmatic and Critical Perspectives.....	54
2.6.1 Critical EAP: From theories to practice.	61
2.7 EAP and Needs Analysis.....	67
2.7.1 Origins and importance.	68
2.7.2 Definitions/concepts.....	69
2.7.3 Prominent models of needs analysis.....	76
2.7.3.1 <i>Communication Needs Processor (CNP) - Munby (1978)</i>	77
2.7.3.2 <i>Target needs and learning needs - Hutchinson and Waters (1987)</i>	78
2.7.3.3 <i>TSA and PSA - Robinson (1991)</i>	81
2.7.4 Critical needs analysis: Rights analysis - Benesch (2001a).	82

2.7.4.1	<i>Rights analysis</i>	86
2.7.5	Studies employing needs analysis	89
2.7.5.1	<i>Studies employing the pragmatic approach</i>	90
2.7.5.2	<i>Studies employing the critical approach</i>	103
2.8	Aim of the Research	109
2.9	Research Questions.....	109
2.10	Conclusion.....	110
CHAPTER THREE		112
METHODOLOGY		112
3.1	Introduction	112
3.2	Theoretical and Philosophical Underpinnings.....	112
3.3	Research Design	117
3.3.1	Introduction.	117
3.3.2	Needs analysis in case studies.	119
3.3.3	The purpose statement.	123
3.3.4	The mixed-method design.	123
3.3.4.1	<i>Definitions of the mixed-method design</i>	123
3.3.4.2	<i>The complementarity mixed-method design</i>	126
3.4	The Case	130
3.5	The Research Site	133
3.5.1	The language centre (CELPAD).....	133
3.5.2	The engineering faculty (ENGIN).....	133
3.5.3	The human sciences faculty (HS).....	134
3.5.4	Doing research at the site.....	135
3.6	The Research Process	136
3.6.1	Identifying the issue.....	137
3.6.2	Determining the case.	138
3.6.3	Conducting review of literature.....	138
3.6.4	Planning the research.....	139
3.6.4.1	<i>Questionnaire</i>	140
3.6.4.1.1	<i>The demographic data</i>	144
3.6.4.2	<i>Interview</i>	148
3.6.5	Seeking ethics approval.....	155
3.6.6	Contacting relevant authorities.....	156

3.6.7	Preparing for data collection.....	156
3.6.8	Conducting the research.	157
3.6.9	Analysing the data.	158
3.6.9.1	<i>Analysing the questionnaires.</i>	158
3.6.9.2	<i>Analysing the interviews.</i>	160
3.6.9.2.1	<i>Transcribing.</i>	160
3.6.9.2.2	<i>Coding and assigning themes.</i>	163
3.6.10	Determining reliability and validity	165
3.7	Conclusion.....	167
CHAPTER FOUR		167
RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION		167
4.1	Introduction	168
4.2	Survey Demographic Data.....	169
4.2.1	Age.....	169
4.2.2	Respondents' gender.....	171
4.2.3	Nationality.	172
4.2.4	Highest academic qualifications	174
4.2.5	Year of study.	174
4.2.6	Years of teaching experience.....	175
4.2.7	Linguistic backgrounds.....	176
4.3	Analysis of Data from Interviews and Questionnaires.....	177
4.4	Research Question 1	178
4.4.1	Present Situation Analysis (PSA).....	179
4.4.1.1	<i>Theme 1: Student needs for research writing skills</i>	179
4.4.1.2	<i>Conclusion.</i>	183
4.4.1.3	<i>Theme 2: Student needs for basic language skills.</i>	183
4.4.1.4	<i>Conclusion.</i>	185
4.4.1.5	<i>Theme 3: Students have needs which were unmet by EAW.</i>	186
4.4.1.6	<i>Conclusion.</i>	187
4.4.2	Target Situation Analysis (TSA).....	187
4.4.2.1	<i>Theme 1: Applying research writing skills upon graduation.</i>	188
4.4.2.2	<i>Conclusion.</i>	188
4.4.2.3	<i>Theme 2: Writing good research reports.</i>	189
4.4.2.4	<i>Conclusion.</i>	189

4.4.2.5	<i>Theme 3: Having a higher level of proficiency in language.</i>	189
4.4.2.6	<i>Conclusion.</i>	190
4.4.3	Questionnaire results on EAW lecturers', faculty lecturers' and students' perceptions of academic writing.	190
4.5	Conclusion to Research Question 1	198
4.6	Research Question 2	199
4.6.1	EAW lecturers' perceptions of EAW, EGAP and ESAP.	200
4.6.1.1	<i>Theme 1: EAW is an EGAP course and should be changed to focus on ESAP.</i>	201
4.6.1.2	<i>Theme 2: EAW is an EGAP course and should remain as it is.</i>	201
4.6.1.4	<i>Conclusion</i>	202
4.6.2	EAW lecturers', EAW/ENGIN students' and EAW/HS students' perceptions of EAW and student needs.	202
4.6.2.1	<i>Theme 1: The student need for EAW is due to the need to do research.</i>	203
4.6.2.2	<i>Theme 2: EAW could meet student needs but only in some ways.</i>	205
4.6.2.3	<i>Theme 3: EAW caters to student needs only for some faculties.</i>	206
4.6.2.4	<i>Theme 4: Students need an EAW course that focuses more on language.</i>	206
4.6.2.5	<i>Conclusion.</i>	207
4.6.3	Questionnaire results on EAW lecturers and students' perceptions of the EAW course.	208
4.7	Conclusion to Research Question 2	215
4.8	Research Question 3	216
4.8.1	Theme 1: Power struggles.	216
4.8.1.1	<i>EAW lecturers' power struggles.</i>	217
4.8.1.2	<i>Students' power struggles.</i>	223
4.8.2	Theme 2: Power relationships.	230
4.8.2.1	<i>Power relationships: the management.</i>	230
4.8.2.2	<i>Power relationships: the language centre and the faculties.</i>	233
4.9	Conclusion to Research Question 3	236
4.10	Discussion	237
4.10.1	Student academic writing needs at the university.	242
4.10.2	Power relations at the university.	245
4.10.3	Situating academic writing	249

4.10.4 Implications of the study.....	252
CHAPTER FIVE	255
CONCLUSION	255
5.1 Introduction	255
5.2 Summary of the Study	255
5.3 Limitations of the Study	257
5.4 Suggestions for Future Research	259
5.5 Concluding Remarks	259
References	261
Appendices	275
Appendix A EAP Course Outline	276
Appendix B EAW Course Outline (Semester 1, 2011/2012).....	278
Appendix C EAW Student Questionnaire	282
Appendix D EAW Lecturer Questionnaire.....	294
Appendix E Faculty Lecturer Questionnaire.....	307
Appendix F Student Interview Questions	317
Appendix G EAW Lecturer Interview Questions.....	317
Appendix H Faculty Lecturer Interview Questions.....	319
Appendix I Consent Form	321
Appendix J Participant Information Sheet.....	323
Appendix K EAW Student’s Term Paper (LEAW5).....	325
Appendix L EAW Student’s Term Paper (LEAW3).....	326
Appendix M EAW Student’s Term Paper (LEAW8).....	327
Appendix N ENGIN Student’s Project Paper (LENG1).....	328
Appendix O ENGIN Student’s Project Paper (LENG2).....	329
Appendix P HS Student’s Project Paper (LHS1).....	330
Appendix Q Interview Transcript: Student.....	331
Appendix R Interview Transcript: Faculty Lecturer	338
Appendix S Interview Transcript: EAW Lecturer	348

List of Tables

Table 1.	<i>The Objectives and the Learning Outcomes of the EAW Course</i>	18
Table 2.	<i>An Excerpt of the Weekly Lesson in the EAW Course Outline</i>	18
Table 3.	<i>Questions for Critical EAP and Actions to Address the Questions</i>	64
Table 4.	<i>Four Viewpoints on Needs</i>	72
Table 5.	<i>Mixed-method Evaluation Designs</i>	127
Table 6.	<i>Questionnaire Sections</i>	143
Table 7.	<i>Interview Participants: EAW Lecturers</i>	151
Table 8.	<i>Interview Participants: ENGIN Lecturers</i>	153
Table 9.	<i>Interview Participants: HS Lecturers</i>	153
Table 10.	<i>Interview Participants: EAW/ENGIN Students</i>	154
Table 11.	<i>Interview Participants: EAW/HS Students</i>	154
Table 12.	<i>Assigning Codes/Nodes and Themes to Data Extracts</i>	164
Table 13.	<i>Age of EAW Lecturers (N=26)</i>	169
Table 14.	<i>Age of Faculty Lecturers (N=39)</i>	170
Table 15.	<i>Age of EAW Students (N=92)</i>	170
Table 16.	<i>Gender of EAW Lecturers (N=26)</i>	171
Table 17.	<i>Gender of Faculty Lecturers (N=39)</i>	171
Table 18.	<i>Gender of EAW Students (N=92)</i>	171
Table 19.	<i>Nationality of EAW Lecturers (N=26)</i>	172
Table 20.	<i>Nationality of Faculty Lecturers (N=39)</i>	172
Table 21.	<i>Nationality of EAW Students (N=92)</i>	173
Table 22.	<i>Highest Academic Qualifications of EAW Lecturers (N=26)</i>	174
Table 23.	<i>Highest Academic Qualifications of Faculty Lecturers (N=39)</i>	174
Table 24.	<i>Year of Study of EAW Students (N=92)</i>	175
Table 25.	<i>Years of Teaching Experience of EAW Lecturers (N=26)</i>	175
Table 26.	<i>Years of Teaching Experience of Faculty Lecturers</i>	176
Table 27.	<i>Linguistic Backgrounds of EAW Students (N=92)</i>	176
Table 28.	<i>Stimulated Recall Data indicating Needs for Research Writing Skills</i> ..	181
Table 29.	<i>Stimulated Recall Data indicating Needs for Basic Language Skills</i>	184
Table 30.	<i>Importance of Writing to Students: EAW Lecturers', Faculty Lecturers' and EAW Students' Perceptions</i>	191
Table 31.	<i>Importance of Writing Skills in EAW to Students: EAW Lecturers', Faculty Lecturers' and EAW Students' Perceptions</i>	194
Table 32.	<i>The EAW Course: EAW Lecturers' and EAW Students' Perceptions</i>	208
Table 33.	<i>Summary of Findings</i>	238
Table 34.	<i>Transferable Skills in the EAW Course Outline</i>	249

List of Figures

<i>Figure 1.</i>	The tree of ELT. (Hutchinson & Waters,1987).....	29
<i>Figure 2.</i>	The perception on the relationship between ESP and EAP	30
<i>Figure 3.</i>	Models of student writing in higher education. (Lea & Street,1998, p. ...	42
<i>Figure 4.</i>	The embedded, single-case design of the study.	132
<i>Figure 5.</i>	The research process.....	137
<i>Figure 6.</i>	Students' age.....	145
<i>Figure 7.</i>	Students' gender	145
<i>Figure 8.</i>	Students' nationality	146
<i>Figure 9.</i>	Students' ethnicity	146
<i>Figure 10.</i>	Students' faculty	147
<i>Figure 11.</i>	Students' year of study	147
<i>Figure 12.</i>	Students' English qualifications	148
<i>Figure 13.</i>	The data collection process.....	157
<i>Figure 14.</i>	Student academic writing needs	239
<i>Figure 15.</i>	Perceptions of the EAW course and student needs	240
<i>Figure 16.</i>	Power relations among stakeholders	241

List of Abbreviations

CDA	Critical Discourse Analysis
CEAP	Critical English for Academic Purposes
CELPAD	Centre for Languages and Pre-University Academic Development
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EAW	English for Academic Writing
EGAP	English for General Academic Purposes
ENGIN	Engineering
EPT	English Proficiency Test
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESOL	English for Speakers of other Languages
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
ESAP	English for Specific Academic Purposes
EST	English for Science and Technology
FYP	Final Year Project
HS	Human Sciences
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
L1	First language; native language
L2	Second language; foreign language
LAP	Language for Academic Programme
LNA	Learning Needs Analysis
MUET	Malaysian University English Test
NA	Needs Analysis
NLS	New Literacy Studies

NNS	Non-native Speakers
PSA	Present Situation Analysis
RA	Rights Analysis
RQ	Research Questions
TSA	Target Situation Analysis
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistics
SRI	Stimulated Recall Interview
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Academic writing in higher education has been a subject of attention especially in the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) field and composition studies at least for the last three decades (e.g., Armstrong, Dannat, & Evans, 2012; Casanave & Hubbard, 1992; Coxhead, 2012; Hansen, 2000; Harwood & Hadley, 2004; Herrington, 1985; Huang, 2010; Hyland, 2013a, 2013b; Jenkins, Jordan, & Weiland, 1993; Paltridge, 2004; Thesen, 2001; Yildirim & Ilin, 2009; Zhu, 2004). The topic of academic writing has been discussed and debated in a number of articles in different contexts such as EAP (e.g., Armstrong et al., 2012; Coxhead, 2012; Harwood & Hadley, 2004; Huang, 2010; Zhu, 2004), academic literacies (e.g., Hyland, 2013b; Lea & Street, 2006, 1998; Lillis & Scott, 2007; Lillis, 2003; Wingate, 2012; Wingate & Tribble, 2012), and writing across the curriculum (WAC) and writing in the disciplines (WID) (e.g., Buzzi, Grimes, & Rolls, 2012; Monroe, 2008). This shows the importance of academic writing especially in relation to education at higher learning institutions. Thesen (2001) regards writing as a dominant practice in universities, and Baik and Greig (2009) point out that most of the international students in their study believed that writing is the most important language skill for academic success in the university.

As a writing teacher at a public university in Malaysia, I view writing as one of the most important academic skills that students need to have. They need writing skills as one of the ways to demonstrate their knowledge and understanding of the subjects that they learn. Elander, Herrington, Norton, Robinson and Reddy (2006) point out that essays and written work “provide opportunities for students to demonstrate some of the most demanding learning outcomes” (p. 72). At the tertiary level, writing has been foregrounded in many university courses (Lillis & Scott, 2007; Wingate & Tribble, 2012) and offered as a specific subject to help students cope with writing in their respective disciplines. Nonetheless, a number of studies have suggested that writing is a major problem for students (Huang, 2010; Ibrahim & Nambiar, 2012). In addition to

students' problems with their writing proficiency, some students are confused regarding the criteria of a good essay in a writing assessment (Elander et al., 2006). Moreover, some academic writing courses are not able to address the issues pertaining to students' writing problems. For example, Wingate and Tribble (2012) note that academic writing courses provided especially to non-native speakers of English in the UK are remedial in nature and neglect some fundamental issues involving writing in the disciplines and the problems among the native and non-native speakers.

Looking at the importance of writing for students, there is a need for more research to examine the subject of academic writing in various contexts. Hence, the present study was undertaken to investigate the academic writing of undergraduate students at a public university in Malaysia. The following sections will provide the contextual background of the study, the statement of the problem and the significance of the study.

1.2 The Contextual Background

There are two parts in this section. First, the setting will be described in terms of the university where the study took place and English as the official language at the university (1.2.1). The following subsection will explain about English for Academic Writing (EAW) as an EAP course, which provides the context of the issues in the study (1.2.2).

1.2.1 IIUM and English language.

The university where the study took place is the International Islamic University Malaysia or IIUM. It is a public university established in 1983 in Malaysia. The main campus is located in the district of Gombak, near the capital city of Kuala Lumpur. Most of its students are non-native speakers of English, comprising Malaysians and international students from 125 countries around the world. IIUM offers various bachelor, master's degrees and PhD courses at 14 faculties, also known as 'kulliyahs'. IIUM has four campuses across the country, and the Gombak campus is the main campus where the centre of administration and eight out of 14 faculties are located. Five other faculties are located in Kuantan, Pahang, and one faculty is in Pagoh, Johor.

For more than 30 years, the university has been using English as its main medium of instruction. In fact, it is the only public university in Malaysia that uses English as the official language for teaching and learning, and also for all its other official functions. Hence, the university administration places importance on students' English language proficiency even before they are accepted into any of its faculties and programmes. It sets a mandatory requirement for students to have either achieved a required level of English in any standard international test of English proficiency (e.g., IELTS, TOEFL) or sat and fulfilled the requirements in its English Proficiency Test (EPT) before entering the university.

Furthermore, IIUM also requires its undergraduate students to take an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course called English for Academic Writing (EAW). This is to ensure the quality of its future graduates in terms of their proficiency in English. This course is provided by a language centre which was established in 1983 as the Centre for Languages. The centre was later renamed the Centre for Languages and Pre-University Academic Development (CELPAD) in 1993, and has been responsible for providing language courses for the students, especially courses on English and Arabic, which are the two main languages of instruction and communication in the university. The next subsection will describe the EAW course in detail.

1.2.2 The EAW course.

English for Academic Writing or EAW is a course that focuses on writing for academic purposes. It is offered by the university's language centre (CELPAD) for students as one of the university required courses bearing three credit hours. Students usually take it in the final year of their undergraduate studies, since they have the priority to do courses offered by their respective faculties (fundamental and core courses) first. The course code for the course is LE4000 and it is required for all undergraduate students registering for a particular programme of the university. In the beginning, EAW was established as a course called Language for Academic Purposes (LAP) in 1999. The course was piloted with the undergraduate students in the Economics faculty for them to improve their academic writing skills. In 2000, its name changed from LAP to English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and it was offered to

undergraduate students from all faculties as a university required course. The course outline stated that the course was for students to experience a step-by-step approach in writing an academic research paper (see Appendix A). The students' main task was to produce a 2500-word argumentative research essay. In the essay, they had to present a stance related to an issue in their area of studies and, using relevant support from secondary research or library research, they had to discuss their arguments and present the counter-arguments as well as refutations.

However, in the first semester of the academic session 2011/2012, the name of the EAP course was changed to EAW, or English for Academic Writing. EAW is still offered to students from all faculties in the university. With a change of name, EAW also went through a significant change in its content. According to a former EAP/EAW course coordinator, the change was made by the university senate to promote a research culture among the students. In contrast to the previous EAP course which required students to conduct secondary research, the new EAW course requires students to conduct primary research. However, even though the method of research was changed, the general aim of the course is similar to the previous one. Its main focus is for students to be able to use appropriate language for writing a research paper. The course outline states that the course is designed for students to experience a step-by-step approach in writing an academic research paper through critical reading and thinking (see Appendix B).

Students meet twice a week in a one-and-half-an-hour class and are provided with notes via an online learning platform. There is no particular textbook used for the course; the lecturers use the notes provided by the course coordinator and are allowed to use any books that they think helpful to achieve the course objectives. Due to the duration of the course (one semester or 14 weeks), students are not encouraged to do a qualitative study but rather a quantitative one, as the general perception is that qualitative research usually takes longer (Dörnyei, 2007). In terms of the writing tasks, the students have to identify issues in their area of studies, formulate research questions based on the statement of the problem that derives from the issues, review related literature, describe the methodology of conducting the research, present the analysis and discussion of findings, and write a conclusion to the study. In terms of the research, they

are required to conduct a survey using questionnaires to get people's perceptions on an identified topic, and do an analysis of the questionnaires using descriptive statistics, which involves describing frequencies and percentages of answers (Brown, 2001).

Most of the time, the course coordinator groups the students according to their faculties in the same class. For example, one class may consist of 25 law students. However, to balance the number of students in a class, many classes end up being heterogeneous in nature. When this happens, students from more than one faculty are mixed in a class. For example, it is common to find 10 law students, 10 human sciences students and five architecture students in a class. This, however, is not seen as an issue by the language centre, probably because the course materials are the same for all classes regardless of the students' disciplines.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

In Malaysia, research shows that generally, university students have issues with their proficiency in English, especially in writing (Ibrahim & Nambiar, 2012; Ismail, Hussin, & Darus, 2012; Sarudin, Zubairi, Nordin, & Omar, 2009; Shah, Ismail, Esa, & Muhamad, 2013). Some of the studies done to address these issues have identified the types of the problems mostly faced by students. Consequently, universities have taken steps to deal with the students' writing problems. It is either the faculties that will tackle writing problems among their students, or the governing body of the university that will set up a language course to help the students through a third party, such as a language centre. However, David, Thang and Azman (2012) reveal that undergraduate students in Malaysia have not been responding well to English language courses organised by their universities to improve their standard of English. They state that this is mainly because students found it hard to find time to attend language courses, and they prioritised their faculty classes if there was a clash with the language course in their timetable.

Notwithstanding the issues with time, I believe that the content of the language courses and the language instructors can also be an issue to the students. It has been a concern of some EAP practitioners when ESL teachers teach discipline-specific discourse (Hansen, 2000). One of the ways to investigate a language course is by investigating the needs for the course, or in other words, by conducting a needs analysis.

Needs analysis has taken a central role in ESP/EAP especially in the literature on course design and materials development (Benesch, 2001a; Flowerdew, 2013; Jordan, 1997; Long, 2005; Robinson, 1991). In Malaysia, however, studies that focus on writing needs among university students have been lacking (Kassim & Ali, 2010). Hence, the use of needs analysis was considered for the present study after relating its appropriateness in investigating the pertinent issues which will be described below.

1.3.1 Direction and motivation.

My interest to address writing needs was initially prompted by my own experience and problems in teaching English for Academic Writing (EAW) in CELPAD, IIUM. The first problem related to the tasks that students had to do (see section 1.2.2). The nature of the tasks was rather too complex to be done in 14 weeks. Writing was one issue, but having to design a quantitative research study – from reviewing the literature, developing a questionnaire and collecting the data, to analysing the data and presenting them – was another set of complex issues altogether. Quantitative research involves “systematic, rigorous, focused, and tightly controlled” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 34) procedures, which require a great amount of time for students to learn.

Secondly, the fact that the course only covered the language aspects of research (see Appendix B) means that students were not supposed to be ‘explicitly’ taught how to do other important components of research, for example, how to write questionnaire items. The language aspects of research are reflected in the course objectives, the learning outcomes and the weekly lessons in the EAW course outline, as presented in Table 1 and Table 2 (the full course outline is in Appendix B).

Table 1. *The Objectives and the Learning Outcomes of the EAW Course*

Course Objectives	<p>The objectives of this course are to produce students who can:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. use the language for research writing 2. apply critical reading skills when reading academic texts 3. use appropriate techniques in citing sources
Learning Outcomes	<p>By the end of the course, students should be able to:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. use appropriate language to review the literature 2. apply appropriate language to write a research paper 3. demonstrate appropriate language register to write an academic piece of writing 4. apply appropriate register to present research findings or an academic paper

Note: From The International Islamic University Malaysia (2011)

Table 2. *An Excerpt of the Weekly Lesson in the EAW Course Outline*

Weeks	Tasks	Learning Hours
4	<p>Describing procedures and methods</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expressing reasons and explanation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Cause and effect ○ Subordinators ○ Conjunctions • Expressing development and changes Transition 	3

Note: From The International Islamic University Malaysia (2011)

Table 1 shows that all the items for the course objectives and learning outcomes are related to language, with a specific focus on its use for research paper writing (e.g., use appropriate language to review the literature). In addition, a look at an excerpt from the weekly lesson in the course outline as shown in Table 2 reveals that students are taught only the language to write the research. It can be seen clearly in Table 2 that only the language aspects of research are stated (e.g., expressing reasons and explanation,

expressing development and changes). In fact, there is no mention of the methodological aspects throughout the course outline (see Appendix B). It seems that students were only taught how to write up a specific kind of research, with the assumption that they would either already have the skills to conduct the research or they would have to pick up the skills as they conducted the research. Even though it was argued that students who took the EAW course were already in their third or fourth (final) year and so they must have had learned or been exposed to research, this was still an assumption. There were some notes on the research techniques or methodology together with the notes on language provided via the online learning platform for reference, but the lecturers' main focus was supposed to be on language rather than the research techniques.

Another important point is that students who took the EAW course came from various disciplines. This may cause a problem for the students as shown in Hansen's (2000) study. Drawing on the concerns of non-discipline specialists teaching discipline-specific discourse, Hansen conducted a case study of an ESL student to understand how students acquire academic literacy within the context of EAP and content courses. The focus of Hansen's study was on the student's development of academic writing skills in ESL courses where she learned to write for mathematics, and her struggles with conflicting demands between the ESL course and her content course (mathematics). The student struggled because she believed that the context of the mathematics text was not authentic. Her struggle shows that the ESL course did not attend to her need to write in her discipline. Therefore, it is important for an EAP course to use a suitable approach that considers the students' disciplinary background.

It is generally known that different disciplines have different approaches to academic writing. Therefore, students may find the kind of writing in their disciplines different from how and what they write before they enter university. The notion of academic writing in higher education can have different meanings, which may cause problems for new learners (Irvin, 2010). New students are expected to be independent at university and write different kinds of writing – something that most of them are not prepared for (Hyland, 2013a). They have to be aware of the types of genres, especially the distinguishing features of different texts in their disciplines, and be able to

understand and then produce them. Failure to do so may result in difficulties for the students to write their academic work using an acceptable form (Paltridge, 2004).

IIUM students have to get used to disciplinary writing in their faculties. It is important for them to be aware of disciplinary discourses to know what is considered as good writing in their field of studies. According to Hyland (2013a), disciplinary discourses are “systematic expressions of institutional meanings and values which are communicated to students along with the texts they are asked to read and write” (p. 241). This shows that reading and writing in the disciplines come with a specific purpose, which may not be achieved if not done in the right context. Even for students who have spent more than one semester at the university, they may continue to regard academic writing as a problem, especially for non-native speakers who may still struggle with English as their second or foreign language. As pointed out by Ibrahim and Nambiar (2012), academic writing is a difficult task for international students. For students who already have good writing skills, writing for their course assignments and projects may not be a serious problem although they may still have to learn how to write effectively in their disciplines. Nevertheless, others who are struggling with their writing skills have to work harder to write effectively for their courses and at same time adhere to the writing conventions. Even though some of the students manage to improve their writing skills as they learn their subjects, there are still some who are not doing well in writing.

The importance of disciplinary discourse is reflected by the great amount of studies and discussions by scholars such as John Swales and Ken Hyland, among others, which involve discussions on writing in the disciplines. According to Zhu (2004), research on writing in specific disciplinary courses reveals that writing in different courses has different purposes. Moreover, Hyland asserts that learning to write in community-specific ways is important to students. Therefore, disciplinary discourses are important to be taken into consideration when dealing with academic writing in higher learning institutions. With regard to the EAW course, it is possible that not all disciplines practised the kind of research that EAW required of the students. Hence, issues might arise if the language centre provides the same writing course for students from different faculties or disciplines, as academic writing practices “vary from

discipline to discipline, from department to department, and even from lecturer to lecturer” (Harwood & Hadley, 2004, p. 366). It is difficult to determine that the kind of academic writing taught in CELPAD appropriately suits the kind of academic writing practised in the students’ faculties. This is because determining the most proper academic writing itself is hard. According to Horowitz (1986), if a journal research article is considered proper academic writing, then most undergraduate writing tasks are not proper academic writing (as cited in Harwood & Hadley, 2004). This suggests that what makes good academic writing may differ in different writing tasks. In addition, it has been discovered that journal articles in analytic philosophy differ greatly from journal articles in continental philosophy in terms of the use of self-mention, vocabulary variation, average sentence length, and use of directives (Hobbs, 2014). This evidence shows that disciplinary writing does not have one particular form, but varies according to the disciplines.

The issues with the students’ academic writing and the EAW course are related to the roles of the language centre and the faculties. In my view, when an EAP course is offered by a third party (e.g., a language centre), there are possible issues that might arise such as the suitability of the course with the faculties’ requirements, and the understanding that the course provider has with the faculties. It is important that the course provider understands the academic writing needs of the faculties and provides an effective writing course to meet the needs. At the same time, the faculties also have an important role in making sure their students’ needs are addressed by the course provider. Good relationships and communication between the stakeholders can contribute to the success of an EAP programme. Thus, possible issues among them also need to be identified and addressed to achieve that purpose.

Looking at these issues, the use of needs analysis was deemed appropriate to elicit the students’ academic writing needs and investigate how EAW had catered to these needs. I then began researching and developing a research framework focusing on the needs analysis. Initially, the framework was based on the needs analysis models proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and Robinson (1991). The questionnaires and interviews were designed to answer two research questions on students’ present and target needs at their faculties and the role of EAW to cater to those needs. At this point,

my research direction was just strictly to investigate the student needs. On the other hand, I discovered several issues during the research process. The interview data had given another dimension which I found more crucial to understand – understanding academic writing at my institution and the existence of power relations among the stakeholders. Further reading on power relations and needs analysis led me to include a critical lens in my needs analysis. In this context of needs analysis, power relations are one of the things that can be investigated, as power is something that always exists (Foucault, 1980, as cited in Benesch, 1999, p. 315).

According to Benesch (2001a), the use of the critical needs analysis may uncover underlying elements related to power relations that could have been addressed other than the student needs. A review of the literature revealed that the critical approach has not been adopted by many EAP practitioners, particularly in conducting needs analyses (Crookes, 2013; Noori & Mazdayasna, 2015), and this signalled a gap in research employing needs analyses. Consequently, this had prompted the third research question of this study which focuses on power relations. Hence, my initial research journey to investigate student needs using the traditional (or pragmatic) needs analysis had shifted its direction to focus on power relations and their manifestation among the stakeholders. In conclusion, understanding the student needs in the case of EAW was crucial; nevertheless, addressing needs can be done using two approaches – the pragmatic approach and the critical approach – and in my case, the use of the critical lens helped me to understand the phenomenon of writing needs more with regard to the academic culture of the university.

1.4 Significance of the Study

According to Casanave and Hubbard (1992), knowing the students' needs and their writing problems is important so that "more adequate curricula, support service classes, and writing tests can be developed to help students meet academic demands, and so that content course faculty can become involved in helping solve students' writing problems" (p. 33). In light of this, this study was conducted to investigate the students' academic writing needs in the context of academic writing in EAP.

In the context of IIUM, the significance of this study is threefold. First, the study is significant for the writing lecturers. It informs them of how faculty lecturers perceived academic writing and student needs. This is deemed crucial most importantly to the lecturers teaching academic writing, as the knowledge of what faculty lecturers require of their students' writing can be translated into the delivery of the writing course. Students' perceptions of academic writing and the EAW course are also important since they can provide useful insights for the lecturers to help them teach academic writing effectively. Secondly, the study is also significant for the writing course provider – CELPAD. As different faculties may have different views with regard to academic writing, investigating the use of academic writing in IIUM was deemed significant as the findings from the faculty lecturers' perspectives can be used by CELPAD to design the appropriate course content to better suit the academic writing needs of the students from different faculties. CELPAD can also use this study to promote collaborations with the faculties, as some researchers note that the content and writing instructors should have a mutual role (Armstrong et al., 2012; Hyland, 2013a; Turner, 2012) and make collaborations (Jenkins et al., 1993; Zhu, 2004). Finally, this study is significant for the university management. The findings can be useful for the people in the management to make decisions on language courses offered by CELPAD.

In a bigger context, this study employed both pragmatic and critical approaches in needs analysis. The findings from both approaches can contribute to the subject of needs analysis in EAP. However, compared to pragmatic EAP which has seen a great amount of needs analyses, this study makes a greater contribution to the field of critical EAP. It demonstrates how the data from a needs analysis could be analysed using a critical lens to provide the underlying meanings of the findings. To date, a review of the literature shows that studies in EAP that employed needs analysis mostly used a pragmatic approach compared to the ones that employed a critical approach, especially among the non-native speakers of English (see section 2.7 for fuller discussion). Notwithstanding, pragmatic EAP has its setbacks (see section 2.6 for fuller discussion). Therefore, this study fills the gap particularly in research that applies a critical approach in EAP – a field which has been commonly associated with pragmatism.

1.5 Thesis Organisation

This thesis consists of five chapters. Chapter One is the introduction of the thesis. It provides the contextual background of the study. The statement of the problem and the significance of the study are presented in this chapter. Chapter Two presents a review of the literature. It consists of discussions of the key ideas, concepts, approaches, and reviews of past studies. The research questions are also presented here. Chapter Three is the chapter on methodology, consisting the theoretical underpinnings of the methodology, the research design and the research process. The next chapter, Chapter Four, presents the findings and the discussion of the findings. The implications of the study is also presented here. The last chapter is Chapter Five. This is where the summary, the limitations, and the suggestions for future research are presented. The chapter ends with concluding remarks.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Generally, this chapter presents a conceptual framework that encapsulates the philosophical aspects that pave the way to the foundation of the study. The chapter consists of discussions of the key ideas, concepts, approaches, and reviews of past studies. Since this study involved non-native speakers (NNS) who used English in their second language writing (L2 writing), all the reviewed studies shared the same context so that links can be made. The framework of the study comprises the subject of needs analysis, encapsulated in the main frame of academic writing in EAP. The subject of needs analysis will be discussed with reference to the pragmatic and critical approaches in EAP.

The chapter begins by introducing the definitions and history of EAP since its emergence from ESP, followed by a discussion focusing on academic writing in EAP. Next, three subjects of controversies and debates that have expanded the field of EAP will be discussed. The subjects of controversies are: (1) EGAP and ESAP; (2) study skills, academic socialisation and academic literacies; and (3) pragmatic and critical perspectives on EAP (Hyland, 2006). According to Hyland (2006), EAP has raised “interesting issues and controversies in conceptualizing and determining its nature and role” (p. 8). These subjects are discussed as they are interconnected and are related to the subjects of academic writing and needs analysis. It is important to note that to date, the EGAP, study skills and pragmatic models have been the dominant approaches in the field of ESP/EAP. An understanding of these models or approaches was deemed vital to rationalise the need for the critical approach in this present study. The last section will be on needs analysis in EAP. The discussion on needs analysis is placed in the last section to relate it to the context of pragmatic and critical perspectives on EAP.

2.2 From ESP to EAP

Understanding the field of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) requires one to know English for Specific Purposes (ESP). To begin with, it is impossible to arrive at a universally applicable definition of ESP (Robinson, 1991). ESP is difficult to define, as definitions worked out by various scholars in the field vary. Munby (1978) defines ESP as courses in which the syllabus and materials are outlined by first analysing the communication needs of the learner. Hutchinson and Waters (1987), instead of giving a direct definition of ESP, prefer to arrive at the definition by discussing the factors that gave birth to ESP, beginning with a simple question: 'Why ESP?', and try to describe ESP as an approach instead of a product (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

In another approach to define ESP, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) begin by comparing the validity and weaknesses of the definitions in the previous literature, and coming up with their own definition which uses 'absolute' and 'variable' characteristics. Absolute characteristics are:

ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learners; ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves; ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities. (p. 4)

Variable characteristics include the following:

ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines; ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English; ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be used for learners at secondary school level; ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners. (p. 5)

A more recent definition of ESP is given by Paltridge and Starfield (2013). They define ESP as the teaching and learning of English as a second or foreign language when the learners' goal is to use English in a particular field. To simplify, some commonalities which can be derived from the various definitions of ESP are the idea of needs and pedagogical concepts that follow. In addition, Brown (2016) states that one alternative

way of defining ESP is to consider what ESP is not. He says, “ESP is not what has been snidely called TENOR (Teaching English for No Obvious Reason, after Abbott, 1981) or ENOP (English with No Obvious Purpose)” (p. 5). For example, Brown describes international students who have just arrived in an English speaking country, who previously studied English as ENOP which focused on the language in terms of its grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. However, when they begin their university studies, they realise that they have problems understanding lectures and communicating with lecturers. They might have been able to deal with this kind of situation better if they had studied English for academic purposes.

Even though there is no clear historical starting point to ESP (Johns, 2013; Swales, 1985), one of the main reasons which contributed to the emergence of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) was general developments in the world economy in the 1950s and 1960s (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), following the demands of a ‘Brave New World’ (post-second world war era, where scientific, technical and economic activities expanded to an international level in a larger scale), English became a highly sought after asset deemed crucial for the next generation’s survival in the new world of technology and commerce. Since gaining its status as the international language of technology and commerce, English has been widely used and taught to meet a growing demand for international communication. The United States (US) and the United Kingdom (UK) had increased the funding for science and technology, which included subsidies for English language teaching and teacher training (Benesch, 2001a). Along with the development of the use of English as a medium of teaching and learning in many learning institutions in various parts of the world, it has not just been taught as a subject for learners to learn the language, but it also had an important impact on the teaching and learning of other subjects as well.

As pointed out by Barber (1962), English was particularly important for the teaching and learning of subjects which relied greatly on textbooks written in English, especially scientific and technical subjects at university level. John Swales in his seminal work, *Episodes in ESP* (1985) has chosen Barber’s (1962) article entitled *Some Measureable Characteristics of Modern Scientific Prose* as the beginning of the history

of ESP. Swales also claims that the findings in Barber's studies are important in English for Science and Technology (EST), as they presented the descriptive techniques of modern linguistics which could be successfully used in EST. In succeeding years, more work has been done and published on linguistics and teaching, and one of the most prominent contributions is *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching* by Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964), which acknowledges the development of applied linguistics as a bridge between linguistics and language teaching. John Swales and Ken Hyland are two key figures in ESP, among others, who acknowledge Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens' contributions in ESP. Swales (2000) describes the publication of the book as paving the way to a solid tradition of work that has continued the 'descriptive textual tradition', a category in which many of the articles in the leading journal *English for Specific Purposes* fall into. Meanwhile, Hyland (2002) highlights their book as contributing to the idea of specificity, a concept fundamental to most definitions of ESP. Even though neither publication (Barber's nor Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens') uses the term ESP, their contributions towards the further development of English for specific or academic purposes have been substantial.

Johns (2013) has presented the history of ESP by first highlighting a few prominent works such as Tarone et al. (1981) which, instead of looking at features of scientific language across genres, focused on a "specific grammatical feature as it influenced rhetorical decisions among a narrow range of research articles in astrophysics" (p. 8). Tarone et al. examines the frequency of the active and passive verb forms in astrophysics journals and consults an informant (an expert in astrophysics) before presenting four rhetorical functions of the passive instead of just giving the frequencies. This is significant as it moves away from works that were just concerned with figures of linguistic or syntactic items in ESP. More recently, ESP scholarship has focused on other concerns, such as the evolution of international authorship, research roles, varied methodologies and triangulation, multimodalities, varied locales, and a research topic that has been getting vast attention, genre studies (Johns, 2013), with leading scholars like John Swales, Vijay Bhatia and Charles Bazerman.

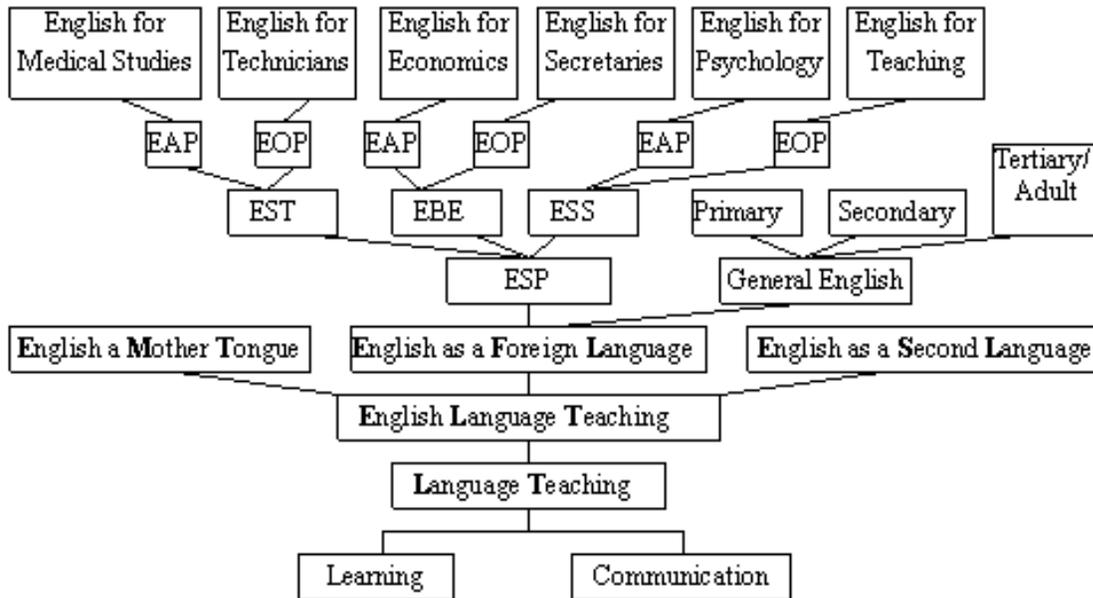


Figure 1. The tree of ELT. (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987)

In addition, it is also important to note the role that English for Science and Technology (EST) has played in the development of ESP. Interestingly, Swales (1985) mentions that ESP was first preceded by EST. In the tree of ELT by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) (see Figure 1), EST was one of three large categories that distinguished ESP courses by the general nature of the learners' specialism. However, in the same book Hutchinson and Waters acknowledge the preeminent position of EST in ESP. Within the development of ESP, there was an emergence of a few further categories: English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Occupational or Vocational Purposes (EOP or EVP), and English for Professional Purposes (Robinson, 1991; Swales, 1985); and English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) (Blue, 1988 in Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

With regard to EAP, Jordan (1989) describes two ways in which the relationship between EAP and ESP is perceived (see Figure 2). The description that is favoured by most English Language Teaching publishers is the first one, which sees EAP as a branch of ESP, alongside EOP/EVP. The second description of how the relationship is perceived, on the other hand, sees ESP as a branch of EAP, together with study skills.

As EAP is gaining more attention, the description has been further distinguished, with EAP being either EGAP or ESAP (see section 2.4 for fuller discussion). In summary, EAP and ESP have been seen as having such a very close relationship that it is possible to sometimes place them in the same group. In fact, EAP is sometimes regarded as a movement within ESP. For example, if the EAP course is subject-specific, which focuses on language features in particular academic disciplines, those who perceive EAP using the second description may regard that EAP course as an ESP course (Jordan, 1989).

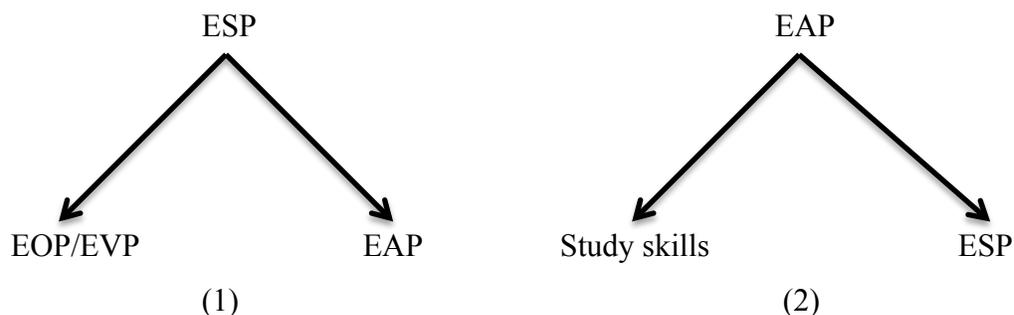


Figure 2. The perception on the relationship between ESP and EAP (Jordan, 1989, p. 150)

EAP has been in demand not only to enhance educational abilities in English-speaking countries, but also for use in the higher education sector in many other countries (Jordan, 1997). There are four different types of situation that characterise EAP:

- EAP in English-speaking countries, where foreign students come to study in a system that uses English (e.g., UK, USA, Australia);
- EAP in countries where English is used as a second language (L2) mostly at all levels of education; but in everyday situations, people use their first language (L1) (e.g., Zimbabwe);
- EAP in countries where only certain subjects like medicine, engineering, science subjects are taught in English (e.g., Jordan);
- EAP in countries where all subjects are taught in L1 and English is an auxiliary language (e.g., Brazil).

(Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p. 34)

Jordan (1997) refers to the definition given by the English Teaching Information Centre (ETIC) in 1975 as a working definition of EAP, that EAP is concerned with those communication skills in English which are required for study purposes in formal education systems. He also identifies that the first recorded use of the term ‘English for Academic Purposes’ was in 1974. Other than for study purposes (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998), EAP also aims to assist research in English (Hyland, 2006; Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002). It refers to “language research and instruction that focuses on the specific communicative needs and practices of particular groups in academic contexts” (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002, p. 2). EAP covers wide areas of academic communicative practice such as:

- Pre-tertiary, undergraduate and postgraduate teaching (from the design of materials to lectures and classroom tasks);
 - Classroom interactions (from teacher feedback to tutorials and seminar discussions);
 - Research genres (from journal articles to conference papers and grant proposals);
 - Student writing (from essays to exam papers and graduate theses);
 - Administrative practice (from course documents to doctoral oral defences).
- (Hyland, 2006, p. 1)

Hyland (2006) notes that apart from being recognised for its characteristics and purposes, EAP has expanded to be a theoretically grounded and research informed enterprise. EAP practitioners have taken a more reflective and research-oriented perspective as a response to changes in tertiary education. Other than looking at syllabus design, needs analysis and materials development, EAP also aims at “capturing ‘thicker’ descriptions of language use in the academy at all age and proficiency levels, incorporating and often going beyond immediate communicative contexts to understand the nature of disciplinary knowledge itself” (Hyland, 2006, p. 2). EAP’s concerns nowadays are not only on the use of proper language or style in academic contexts, but along with globalisation and internalisation, EAP practitioners are dealing with challenges caused by more diverse student populations, disciplinary-specific studies and changing communicative practices, and multimodalities in academic communication

(Hyland, 2006; Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002). There is a rise in the number of non-native speakers of English in EAP classrooms, and lecturers are faced with the challenges to accommodate them in their discourse community and also meet the institutional expectations.

The notion of discourse community has been applied in the earlier ESP work (Swales, 1990, as cited in Starfield, 2013). According to Hyland and Hamp-Lyons (2002) the concept of discourse community, which is closely related to specificity (see section 2.4), has become central in EAP. Discourse community refers to members of a group who “acquire and deploy the specialized discourse competencies that allow them to legitimate their professional identities and to effectively participate as group members”; each group is different “along both social and cognitive dimensions, offering contrasts not just in their fields of knowledge, but also in their ways of talking, their argument structures, aims, social behaviours, power relations, and political interests” (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002, p. 6). In brief, a discourse community consists of a group of people who use the same communicative practices to achieve common goals. With the increase in the number of non-native speakers in a discourse community, teaching and learning in EAP have been facing with social and political challenges, demanding more research to be done to address these issues.

EAP has aligned itself with the development of ESP in the sense that it focuses on accommodating students’ academic needs and determining effective pedagogies. Nonetheless, the recent developments have witnessed increased attention on the “socio-political implications of an ‘accommodationist’ view of language learning which seeks to induct learners into uncritical acceptance of disciplinary and course norms, values and discourses” (Hyland, 2006, p. 5). Elements of power and authority in communication practices have complicated teaching and learning, and have either favoured or marginalised different groups across academic disciplines (see section 2.6 for fuller discussion). These are some of the main issues in the social, cultural and ideological contexts of language use that have become central in EAP. In summary, EAP has developed from being a platform to address the use of English communication skills for study purposes and research (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, Jordan, 1997, Hyland, 2006) to taking a role to address the dilemma of being accommodationist or

critical to ideologies and politics in education (Hyland, 2006; Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002). I view this recent development with a positive attitude, as the emergence of critical approach has provided an alternative for practitioners to relook at their existing practice and have a fresh new perspective on EAP.

This section has given a brief history of ESP and EAP, with a discussion of their recent developments. In the context of this study, both terms, ESP and EAP, are used interchangeably as they can be used to refer to the same framework. The next section will discuss academic writing in EAP.

2.3 Academic Writing in EAP

There have been numerous discussions and studies on academic writing at the tertiary level for various purposes (Hewings, 2004; Drury, 2004). Many of them are done in the context of EAP, with some of the purposes being to identify writing problems and needs (e.g., Casanave & Hubbard, 1992; Huang, 2010; Jenkins et al. 1993; Yildirim & Ilin, 2009; Zhu, 2004), address faculty feedback (Hyland, 2013a), evaluate writing programs (e.g., Armstrong et al., 2012), and study the use of academic writing conventions (e.g., Coxhead, 2012). There have also been discussions on the development and the role of academic writing in EAP (e.g., Benesch, 2001a, 2001b; Canagarajah, 2002; Hamp-Lyons, 2011; Hyland, 2013c; Grabe, 2001; Paltridge, 2004).

Grabe (2001), Paltridge (2004), Hamp-Lyons (2011) and Hyland (2013c) are among the scholars who have written articles that shed light on the development of academic writing. Their writing encompasses topics of academic writing and ESP/EAP, first and second language learners of English (L1 and L2) in academic writing, descriptions of academic writing, and the development of approaches to the teaching of academic writing. Among the highlighted areas are theories of writing, the new rhetoric and the academic literacies approach to writing, and issues like critical thinking in student writing, plagiarism and writer identity and reader/writer power relations. Paltridge has noted that the examination of academic writing began in the 1960s and early 1970s. It was based on register analysis, which looked at patterns of grammar and vocabulary in registers. During that time, the key figures were M.A.K Halliday, Angus Macintosh and Peter Strevens. Next, the focus was on the examination of rhetorical

functions in academic texts, which looked at organisational patterns such as compare and contrast, and problem-solution. It also analysed the linguistic means used in the patterns. The key figure in this approach was Louis Trimble.

In the development of theories of writing, Grabe (2001) explains that the development of L2 theories of writing in the 1970s and 1980s was based closely on L1 theories of the writing process. L1 theories of writing in the modern context focused on writing processes before the exploration of the role of genre knowledge in writing. According to Paltridge (2004), an important work by Tarone et al. (1981), which looked at the use of passive in astrophysics articles in terms of rhetorical or communicative purpose, became the first research that added genre to its analysis. Subsequently, the study of genre was advanced in the 1990s by researchers like John Swales and Vijay K. Bhatia. The focus of their genre analysis was on text specific analyses. Swales' 1990 seminal book, *Genre Analysis*, not only describes the complexity in defining a genre, but also offers the concept of a discourse community (Hyland, 2013c). After Swales' early work with academic genres (prominently known for his move analysis in 1990), more work has been done by researchers such as Basturkmen, Giannoni, Motta-Roth, Precht, Connor and Mauranen (Hamp-Lyons, 2011). According to Paltridge, more recent developments have involved computational linguistics or corpus linguistics with key figures like Ken Hyland and Douglas Biber. Later, new areas of studies such as contrastive rhetoric and disciplinary discourses received much attention in the study of academic writing. Grabe mentions that these areas of studies have contributed to the development of L2 theories of writing. Ken Hyland is also one of the key figures in disciplinary discourses, and his research looked at "the relationship between the cultures of academic communities and their discursal practices" (Paltridge, 2004, p. 93).

In the teaching of academic writing, Paltridge (2004) explains that from the 1940s to the 1960s, the teaching of second language writing was based on the idea of 'controlled composition', which looked at language as "a set of fixed patterns that a writer manipulates in order to produce new sentences" (p. 94). In the mid-1960s, a new movement called current-traditional rhetoric emerged, and focused on the teaching of rhetorical functions that moved from the sentence level to the discourse level. The 1970s witnessed another new approach to teaching writing. It was called the process

approach, or the writer-focused approach (Canagarajah, 2002), where the aims were to “guide rather than control learners and to let content, ideas and the need to communicate determine form, rather than commence with the form of a text” (p. 95). The process approach was however not favoured by some. One of the criticisms was that it does not give the right impression of what academic writing is in university settings, as students tend to be obsessed with personal meaning instead of the requirements of academic writing. This led to the shift from the writing process to the focus on the needs of learners in the 1980s. The 1980s also witnessed the development of another approach that is content driven. It was called content-based instruction, and it focused on “incidental and instructed learning, with written texts being central” (p. 95). This approach also continues to be influential.

The development of academic writing recently has taken a significant turn, with the emergence of critical perspectives on EAP (e.g., Benesch, 2001a, 2001b; Canagarajah, 2002). Although they can be considered as relatively new, their existence has impacted academic writing in ESL and EAP. I strongly believe that the dominant theoretical and pedagogical approaches in EAP have put too much focus on the technical aspects of academic writing (e.g., identifying writing patterns and learners’ needs, conducting textual analysis, etc.), rather than the socio-political aspects involving the learners and other stakeholders. Benesch’s (2001a, 2001b) responses to the traditional L2 practitioners’ concerns over the shift from the focus on target situation demands to political concerns such as power relations and social inequities have led to the emergence of a new strand in EAP – critical EAP or CEAP (see section 2.6 for fuller discussion). The opponents of CEAP felt that the critical thinking in L2 is uniquely Western and has a colonising effect (Benesch, 2001b). Canagarajah (2002) shares a similar view to Benesch’s with regard to the critical approach in EAP. He discusses academic writing in English by raising the issue of linguistic imperialism. He stresses the importance of focusing on the attitudes and approaches towards English language rather than the issues of its domination and colonisation over other languages and values. Taking a critical stance, he criticises the dominant pedagogical approaches in academic writing: (1) the form-focused or the product approach; (2) the writer-focused or the process approach; (3) the content-focused approach; and (4) the reader-

focused approach. Similar to Grabe (2001), Canagarajah also notes that these four approaches are based on the development of L1 writing, and are drawn from the Western philosophies and traditions. Even though he acknowledges their significance, he believes that they have to be “situated in a clearly defined sociopolitical context” (p. 41). He proposes a critical writing approach that requires “a fundamental shift of emphasis” (p. 41), which focuses on the social context.

The next section discusses a subject of controversy which has impacted the development of EAP – the subject of EGAP and ESAP.

2.4 EAP: EGAP and ESAP

According to Hyland (2006), one key issue in EAP is related to the notion of specificity, which has been discussed via the terms ‘English for General Academic Purposes’ (EGAP) and ‘English for Specific Purposes’ (ESAP). The notion of EGAP and ESAP has been much debated in EAP and has been addressed by many in discussing the best approach for EAP (e.g., Basturkmen, 2003, 2006; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Hyland, 2006; Jordan, 1997; Spack, 1988; Widdowson, 1983). In relation to this study, it is important to know the difference between EGAP and ESAP to understand the kind of approach adopted by EAW.

According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), EGAP refers to “the teaching of the skills and language that are common to all disciplines” (p. 41). It is based on an idea that EAP should not be seen as a course to fulfill specific purposes (Widdowson, 1983), but that EAP is an approach to language teaching in which the learning process should not differ from general English (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Jordan (1997), while discussing EGAP in the context of integrated study skills, states that by having EGAP, students are able to see the relationship between skills and can utilise them in their studies and projects. However, he also points out the disadvantages of it, that tutors will have limited choice and control of materials and methods, and that students may not need all the skills. He describes EGAP by giving six main study skills areas deemed important in an EGAP approach. The study skills areas are: academic reading and writing; vocabulary development; lectures and note taking; speaking for academic purposes; reference or research skills; and examination skills. Overall, the main idea

behind an EGAP approach is that EAP courses should not be designed to cater to one specific discipline, but should be built around a general approach that is concerned with a common core of universal skills or language forms which can cater to various disciplines in an institution (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002).

On the other hand, ESAP is a view that is concerned more with the needs of particular groups in academic contexts; in other words, ESAP implements disciplinary specificity in an EAP course (Hyland, 2013b). To understand disciplinary specificity in EAP, it is important to understand the concept of an academic discipline, which is not straightforward (Becher & Trowler, 2001). Becher and Trowler (2001), in their attempt to define academic discipline, explain how statistics is known as a discipline after originally being in the discipline of mathematics. This situation can happen when academic institutions recognise the formation of the discipline in terms of their organisational structures alongside the emergence of an international community, consisting of professional associations and specialist journals. In summary, disciplines are “in part identified by the existence of relevant departments; but it does not follow that every department represents a discipline” (Becher & Trowler, 2001, p. 41). However, the term ‘disciplinary specificity’ conveys a different meaning, as it adds the notion of specialism. According to Becher and Trowler, “Specialisms, by contrast, are less formally recognizable in terms of organized professional groupings, dedicated journals and bibliographical categories” (p. 67). They explain that the characters of disciplines are multi-dimensional, that the objects of study vary and may change over time (e.g., anthropology), and may be more or less contentious (e.g, the disagreement whether the object of study in English literature is the body of literature or pertinent sociological issues associated with the literature). Other dimensions include disciplinary stance (concerned with whether a discipline is focusing on ‘knowing’ or ‘doing’), disciplinary mode (normal or reflexive), classification (the extent of ‘boundedness’ from other disciplinary areas) and frame (the extent of agreement and control over content among specialists). These dimensions create recognitions of specialisms, and even sub-specialisms, in a discipline.

With regard to disciplinary specificity in EAP, it refers to “the teaching of the features that distinguish one discipline from others” (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998,

p.41). As an example, EAP courses that distinguish the course by disciplines such as English for Law or English for Medicine are considered ESAP. Hyland (2002) asserts that EAP must involve teaching literacy skills suitable to the purposes and understandings of particular academic communities. In this view, it is important to note that students' disciplinary activities are an essential part of their engagement in their disciplines. One of his main arguments against EGAP concerns the notion of the common core hypothesis – transferable general skills and forms across contexts and purposes. Hyland claims that the main problem lies in defining what a common core is. Although some topics like 'business writing' and 'persuasive language' as well as features of academic writing like 'explicitness' can be categorised as a common core, he argues that they are "only 'core' in a very general sense and give the misleading impression of uniform disciplinary practices" (p. 389). He further explains that these core features are insufficient for students to understand disciplinary conventions or develop academic writing skills.

A case study by James (2010) supports the arguments made by Hyland. He examines learning transfer from EGAP writing instruction to other academic courses. As the course is EGAP, discipline specificity was the central issue. Therefore, James examines the effectiveness of the EGAP course by investigating the extent to which EGAP writing instruction helped learning transfer to students' work in their academic programs. The students in the course were interviewed and asked for writing samples produced in the writing course and other courses. The findings showed that a wide range of learning outcomes (e.g., 'describing visually', 'narrating', 'using similes/metaphors', and 'using past perfect tense accurately') did transfer from the writing course across task types and disciplines, although some were more frequent (e.g., 'avoiding fused sentences'; 'framing') than others (e.g., 'using past perfect accurately'; 'using similes/metaphors'). On the other hand, even though the results suggest that EGAP writing instruction could lead to transfer, James argues that it was inappropriate to draw a conclusion about the relative efficacy of EGAP versus ESAP writing instruction. His argument shows that skills transfer does not necessarily indicate the success of EGAP instructions in providing the students with disciplinary conventions.

Basturkmen (2003) extends the use of the terms ‘wide-angle’ and ‘narrow-angle’ by Widdowson to reflect her notion of EGAP and ESAP respectively in her paper discussing the advantages and disadvantages of both types of course designs in ESP. According to Widdowson (1983), wide angle courses are similar to English for general purposes courses that provide learners with “a general capacity to enable them to cope with undefined eventualities in the future” (p. 6), while narrow angle courses provide learners with “a restricted competence to enable them to cope with clearly defined tasks” (p. 6). Basturkmen argues that although narrow-angled course designs can be theoretically attractive, they are impractical in terms of preparation time and can cause students to have insufficient experience of language if they end up not being in the group for which the courses are intended. Furthermore, Basturkmen (2006) questions the existence of ‘specific elements’ in ESP. She introduces the idea of ‘specifiable elements’ which are more critical for ESP learners but are not exclusive to certain disciplines. Moreover, some other issues raised by Jordan (1997) with regard to ESAP are students’ inadequacy in the specialist subject and tutors’ teaching ineffectiveness in the specialist subject. He explains that some students may have difficulties coping with the subjects in the disciplines even before coping with the language of the subjects. The EAP tutors may also not be able to cope with the technicality of the specialist subjects and this in turn may affect their teaching. In addition, Spack (1988) even refutes a claim that teaching a course focusing on writing in a particular discipline is possible if the teachers learn how a discipline creates and transmits knowledge. She argues that it would take a great level of commitment on the teachers’ part and it “involves even more specialized knowledge and skills than does the teaching of the subject matter itself” (p. 99).

Nevertheless, Hyland (2013a & 2013b), although admitting that the notion of specificity remains controversial and may be logistically challenging and not cost effective, claims that EAP is not about improving generic language ability, but helping students to develop communicative skills in specific academic and professional settings. Hyland and Hamp-Lyons (2002) argue that various research shows that different communities have different purposes and “successful communication depends on the projection of a shared context” (p. 5). This notion is further supported by the findings of

some studies on ESP/EAP. For example, Zhu (2004) in her study of members of business and engineering faculties to investigate the faculty role in academic writing instruction, concluded that there is a need for teaching specificity in the EAP context. She added that academic writing research that studied writing in specific disciplinary courses has shown that writing serves different purposes in different courses and demands students to play different social roles, and that “communicative conventions are intricately intertwined with the content for, the aims of, and student roles in writing” (p. 30). In addition, the finding in a study by Leopold (2010) opposed the claim by Spack (1988) that instructors require specialised training in the subject matters to teach writing in a particular discipline. He argues that EAP instructors can “exploit their strengths and training in genre analysis” (p. 177). Language instructors do not necessarily need special training in the subject matter if they can learn about the genres used in the disciplines. In summary, ESAP seems appealing in its approach to develop academic writing skills specific to the students’ discipline.

On a different note, Widdowson (1983) argues that work on ESP “has suffered through too rigid an adherence to the principle of specificity of eventual purpose as a determining criterion for course design” (p. 15). Perhaps that is why EGAP has become a popular approach (Basturkmen, 2006). Having taught and been involved in the development of an EAP course in a public institution of higher learning in Malaysia, it appears to me that there are various factors that contribute to the success of an EAP course. EAP course design requires a complex process (Tajino, James & Kijima, 2005). One of the most important things to consider when designing an EAP course is, it has to be a course that serves the needs of the students and also addresses the socio-political aspects beyond the communicative contexts (Hyland, 2006). Since students’ academic contexts may differ greatly, it is imperative that constant research is done involving different academic disciplines to really understand the differences, and also see whether the differences are significant for the stakeholders. In terms of practicality, the EGAP model appears to accommodate course designers in managing the stakeholders and preparing the course materials. However, although the ESAP model requires more work in designing the course, I believe it is a better step towards providing students with the

right form of English for their academic purposes, that the students will be able to benefit when learning in their disciplines.

With regard to the EAW course (see 1.2.2), the lecturers teaching the course are writing instructors from the language centre (CELPAD), with no specialisations in the disciplines where the students are from. EAW is taught to students from different faculties, where they may be in the same class, learn the same content, do the same tasks and produce the same product (a research paper). One of EAW's learning objectives (Table 1) is to produce students who can use the language for research writing. This can be compared to the notion that the course does not cater to one specific discipline, but builds around a general approach associated with a common core of universal skills which can cater to various disciplines (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002). In other words, the course employs a one-size-fits-all approach in teaching academic writing to all faculties in IIUM. Therefore, EAW can be closely associated with EGAP.

The second controversy in EAP (study skills, academic socialisation and academic literacies) is discussed in the following section.

2.5 EAP: Study Skills, Academic Socialisation and Academic Literacies

Besides the issue of specificity in EAP, Hyland (2006) regards another issue comprising three conceptions – study skills, academic socialisation and academic literacies – which have been the approaches in the teaching of student writing, as representing “a movement towards a more context-sensitive perspective” (p. 16). This section will touch on the three approaches to discuss their orientation and relate them to the previous subject of controversies – EGAP and ESAP.

To begin with, Mary R. Lea and Brian V. Street in their seminal articles, *Student Writing in Higher Education: An Academic Literacies Approach* in 1998 and *The “Academic Literacies” Model: Theory and Applications* in 2006, have discussed the issues of student writing in higher education. In both articles, they compared three models of educational research on student writing in higher education, which are ‘study skills’, ‘academic socialisation’ and ‘academic literacies’. The descriptions of the three models can be seen in Figure 3. They adopted the concept of academic literacies as a

framework in a study to explore the perceptions of academic staff and students, to understand students' writing practices.

<p><i>Study Skills:</i></p> <p><i>Student deficit</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• 'Fix it'; atomised skills; surface language, grammar, spelling.• Sources: behavioral and experimental psychology; programmed learning. <p><i>Student Writing as technical and instrumental skill.</i></p>
<p><i>Academic socialisation:</i></p> <p><i>Acculturation of students into academic discourse</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Inducting students into new 'culture'; focus on orientation to learning and interpretation of learning task, e.g. 'deep', 'surface', 'strategic' learning; homogeneous 'culture', lack of focus on institutional practices, change and power.• Sources: social psychology; anthropology; constructivism. <p><i>Student writing as transparent medium of representation.</i></p>
<p><i>Academic literacies</i></p> <p><i>Student's negotiation of conflicting literacy practices</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Literacies as social practices at level of epistemology and identities; institutions as sites of/constituted in discourses and power; variety of communicative repertoire, e.g. genres, fields, disciplines; switching with regard to linguistic practices, social meanings and identities.• Sources: 'new literacy studies'; critical discourse analysis; systemic functional linguistics; cultural anthropology. <p><i>Student writing as meaning-making and contested.</i></p>

Figure 3. Models of student writing in higher education. (Lea & Street, 1998, p. 172)

2.5.1 The study skills model.

A summary of the study skills model can be seen in Figure 3. The study skills model or approach looks at literacy as a "set of atomised skills which students have to

learn and which are transferable to other contexts” (Lea & Street, 1998, p. 158). Its emphasis is on fixing students’ problems in the areas of surface structures, grammar and spelling. Student deficit is the main focus, and according to Lea and Street (2006), it gives “little attention to context and is implicitly informed by autonomous and additive theories of learning, such as behaviorism, which are concerned with the transmission of knowledge” (p. 369). More recent definitions of study skills range from involving specific aspects such as referencing and dissertation formatting, to a broader inclusion of abilities, techniques and strategies that students need more than linguistic knowledge to succeed in their studies (Hyland, 2006).

Hyland (2002) has been critical of the idea of a study skills approach in ESP, which has been adopted by many universities due to its convenience for administrators, logistics and cheaper costs. He rejects the idea that ESP is a service to provide remedial exercises to students who come to universities with a deficit of literacy skills. He believes that such a move is a backward step from ESP to general English teaching. The assumption here is that the study skills model may only work under certain circumstances in which there is a need to teach general English but not anything that encompasses writing in specific disciplines.

The study skills approach remains as a common approach in many universities. Gettinger and Seibert (2002) suggest that good study skills can contribute to academic competence. They state that study skills, which include competencies related to acquiring, recording, organising, synthesising, remembering and using information, contribute to success not just in academic settings but in non-academic settings as well. Gustafsson (2011), in his paper discussing academic literacies as frameworks for facilitating language for specific purposes (LSP), highlights the need to design interventions that are skills-oriented in some situations to add the skills level to the students’ development of LSP. His view is more flexible compared to how Hyland (2002) sees the study skills approach in addressing a specific purpose in teaching English. In addition, Durkin and Main (2002) reveal the effectiveness of a discipline-based study skills course compared to a generic study skills course for undergraduate students. However, even though they have come up with an effective approach to a study skills course, they also note “a gap between lecturers’ expectations and the

assessment criteria, and the students' awareness and understanding of these" (p. 37) – something that the academic literacies approach addresses in its model.

In the context of EAP, the study skills model is associated with the EGAP approach, where the focus of the course is to enable students to see the relationship between skills and their studies. I see this as possibly limiting the students' opportunities for optimum learning, as the model does not directly address students' disciplinary writing (Hyland, 2002). Students are provided with skills that are supposed to be transferable to other contexts and contribute to their communicative competence. The nature of the skills is general and common to all disciplines.

2.5.2 The academic socialisation model.

As shown in Figure 3, the academic socialisation model or approach brings the cultural context into perspective. It is different from the study skills model as it integrates language, user and context (Hyland, 2006). In anthropology, socialisation is also known as enculturation, and it refers to "the process by which an individual acquires the norms, values, and behaviours of the group. In other words, socialization is the development of an initial worldview" (Reynolds, 1992, pp. 637-638). The worldview of people involves interpreting and relating reality and events to the world around them (Peoples & Bailey, 2012). Reynolds (1992) explains that this worldview consists of seven integrated cognitive categories: self; other; relationship of self to other; time; space; causality; and classification. She states that once initial socialisation begins in a group of people, "succeeding socialization experiences assume a congruence between the individual's world view and that of the new group" (p. 638).

While acknowledging study skills, the academic socialisation approach mainly focuses on student orientation to learning and how they interpret learning tasks and acculturation into academic discourse. Acculturation is an important key idea in the academic socialisation model. Acculturation, according to Reynolds (1992), is "a process that assumes initial differences in worldview between the individual and the group" (p. 638). She further explains that acculturation involves individuals' strategies to cope with minority status in a new culture. Winthrop (1991) defines acculturation as the change of culture resulting from contact between members of societies. In the

context of academic socialisation, students are introduced to the culture of the academy or the institution.

In the context of ESP, Basturkmen (2006) discusses Schumann's (1986) idea of the correlation between acculturation and successful second-language learning. According to Schumann, there are four factors which can impact on acculturation and successful learning. The first one is power relations between two groups. A learner is likely to acquire the language of a group that he or she sees as dominant, for example in terms of the economic status. The second factor is the desire to assimilate. A learner is likely to acquire the language of a group he or she wishes to integrate with. The third one is the extent of shared facilities. A learner is likely to acquire the language of a group they share facilities with. The last factor is psychological. A learner is likely to acquire a language if he or she is familiar with the language and the culture of the language speakers. Thus, socialisation is a key idea here for students to succeed in second-language learning.

According to Lea and Street (1998), from the academic socialisation perspective, the tutor is expected to "induct students into a new 'culture', that of the academy" (p. 159). By interacting with the members in the new community of the institution, the students immerse themselves in the new culture and acquire the cultural knowledge of the community. Furthermore, the academic socialisation approach also recognises the use of different genres and discourses by different disciplines to construct knowledge. On the other hand, even though the approach involves culture as part of the students' learning process, Lea and Street (1998) criticise this as the academic socialisation approach "appears to assume that the academy is a relatively homogeneous culture, whose norms and practices have simply to be learnt to provide access to the whole institution" (p. 159). This is one of the notions that they took on when they distinguished the academic socialisation model from the academic literacies model.

Duff (2010) discusses academic socialisation in the context of socialisation in academic discourse. Seeing academic discourse as the same as academic language or academic literacies, she refers to it as "forms of oral and written language and

communication – genres, registers, graphics, linguistic structures, interactional patterns – that are privileged, expected, cultivated, conventionalized, or ritualized, and, therefore, usually evaluated by instructors, institutions, editors, and others in educational and professional contexts” (p. 175). In her explanation of socialisation in academic discourse, she states that socialisation in academic discourse addresses the following questions:

- How do newcomers to an academic culture learn how to participate successfully in the oral and written discourse and related practices of that discourse community?
- How are they socialized, explicitly or implicitly, into these local discursive practices?
- How does interaction with their peers, instructors, tutors, and others facilitate the process of gaining expertise, confidence, and a sense of authority over those practices over time?

(p. 169)

From a language socialisation perspective, new learners in an academic discourse community gain cultural knowledge about ideologies, identities and practices of the community members. This happens through interactions between the new learners with other community members. Duff (2010) mentions that:

The core theoretical premise of language socialization is that language is learned through interactions with others who are more proficient in the language and its cultural practices and who provide novices explicit and (or) implicit mentoring or evidence about normative, appropriate uses of the language, and of the worldviews, ideologies, values, and identities of community members. (p. 172)

According to Morita (2004) and Yang and Badger (2015), there are two orientations used by scholars to study how second language learners are socialised into academic discourse. The first one is a product-oriented approach. In this approach, the focus is on identifying the learners’ needs according to the language events or situations in which students participate for the related skills or knowledge. Needs analysis and genre analysis are common types of a product-oriented research (Morita, 2004). The second approach is a process-oriented approach. It focuses on interactions and how the

students understand these interactions (Yang & Badger, 2015). In other words, it “asks how students are socialized” (Morita, 2004, p. 574). Yang and Badger (2015) in their comparison of product and process approaches conclude that “product approaches provide useful descriptions of what students need to be able to do but we need to draw on process approaches to understand how students might become members of a new community” (p. 442). They explain that the students negotiate their identities during the interactions, and this later leads to the process of acculturation. The process-oriented approach presented by Morita and Yang and Badger is the essence of the language socialisation perspective in Duff (2010), where the focus is on the acculturation process. In addition, Lea and Street (2006) relate academic socialisation to “students’ acculturation into disciplinary and subject-based discourses and genres” (p. 369). However, according to Lea (2004), the assumption that students can acculturate “unproblematically into the academic culture through engaging with the discourses and practices of established practitioners” (p. 741) is not shared by the academic literacies approach. She argues that the relationship of students and the discourses and literacy practices is more complex. In addition, it also takes into account the contested nature of writing practices.

2.5.3 The academic literacies model.

Upon comparing the study skills and the academic socialisation models to the academic literacies model, Lea and Street (2006) mention that the study skills and the academic socialisation models have been the common guide for universities and schools in their curriculum, instructions and research. However, despite believing that all three models overlap each other, they claim that the third model, the academic literacies model, not only draws on the skills and academic socialisation approaches, but pays more attention to the “relationships of power, authority, meaning making, and identity that are implicit in the use of literacy practices within specific institutional settings” (Lea & Street, 2006, p. 370). This is because the academic literacies model does not see literacy practices in just a disciplinary community; it also looks at how literacy practices of the student’s institution are connected to what students need to learn and do. In the

academic literacies model, the institutions where learning takes place are sites of discourse and power (Lea & Street, 1998). According to Lea and Street (2006):

The third model, *academic literacies*, is concerned with meaning making, identity, power, and authority, and foregrounds the institutional nature of what counts as knowledge in any particular academic context. It is similar in many ways to the academic socialization model, except that it views the processes involved in acquiring appropriate and effective uses of literacy as more complex, dynamic, nuanced, situated, and involving both epistemological issues and social processes, including power relations among people, institutions, and social identities. (p. 369)

Hyland (2006) notes that the academic socialisation model and the academic literacies model are similar in the sense that they both see language as discourse practices – they see how language is used in particular contexts. However, the difference is that, the academic literacies model “sees one of the most important dimensions of these contexts as the participants’ experiences of them, and, more critically, of the unequal power relations which help structure them” (p. 21).

The origins of the academic literacies approach have been presented by Russell, Lea, Parker, Street and Donahue (2009). Before the 1990s, little attention was paid by researchers to issues of student writing in the UK. However, by the early 1990s, an increase in the number of students in higher learning institutions prompted the establishment of study skills and ‘learning support’ centres to accommodate student writing. The practitioners at that time were frustrated by the limitations of “simplistic surface- and skill-based models of student writing” (p. 398), and they began looking for more feasible and theorised explanations of the problems. This situation led to academic literacies research in the last decade. During that time, work by Norman Fairclough on critical linguistics and critical language awareness and the academic literacies approach was also influential in the new higher education context.

In 1996, Brian Street’s publication on academic literacies associated his perspectives with the New Literacy Studies (NLS). Earlier in 1984, Street had already contributed to NLS when he distinguished between the autonomous and ideological models of literacy. His argument was that,

whereas an autonomous model of literacy suggests that literacy is a decontextualised skill, which once learned can be transferred with ease from one context to another, the ideological model highlights the contextual and social nature of literacy practices, and the relationship of power and authority which are implicit in any literacy event. (Russell et al., 2009, p. 399)

According to NLS, writing and reading are contextualised social practices. However, although there was some work at that time that conceptualised writing as contextualised social practice, none of it made any reference to NLS or academic literacies. Only gradually, the term 'literacies' came into use when the focus of the work was on student writing as social practice and there was a recognition of a multiplicity of practices. Even so, the use of the term 'literacies' was not to associate the work with the NLS theoretical framework, but rather to show the focus on student writing rather than spoken language (spoken language was associated with the term 'discourse' at that time). Later in 1998, an article on a research by Mary R. Lea and Brian V. Street which adopted the NLS methodological approach to examine students' and tutors' expectations of student writing proposed that the academic literacies model was able to reveal the gaps between students' and tutors' expectations with regard to institutional practices, power relations and identities. This was the trigger for the academic literacies model to get more attention in higher education.

The academic literacies model recognises the institutions where learning, discourse and power take place, and it acknowledges the "literacy demands of the curriculum as involving a variety of communicative practices, including genres, fields and disciplines" (Lea & Street, 1998, p. 159). Theoretically, the model is associated with critical discourse analysis, systemic functional linguistics and cultural anthropology. Critical discourse analysis (CDA) "brings the critical tradition of social analysis into language studies and contributes to critical social analysis a particular focus on discourse and on relations between discourse and other social elements (power relations, ideologies, institutions, social identities, and so forth)" (Fairclough, 2012, p. 9). CDA sees language as social practice, and it also looks at the relationship between language and power (Wodak & Meyer, 2001). Systemic functional linguistics (SFL) is concerned with the relationship between language and its functions in social settings.

Generally, systemic linguists are interested in the relationship between language and context, and the systemic approach is used to provide a useful descriptive and interpretive framework for viewing language as a strategic, meaning-making resource (Eggins, 1994). With regard to cultural anthropology, it is “the study of contemporary and historically recent human societies and cultures” (Bailey & Peoples, 2014, p. 6). In cultural anthropology, the main focus of study is culture.

Additionally, according to Lea and Street (1998), one of the main features of academic literacy practices from a student’s perspective is the requirement to switch practices between settings as well as use appropriate literacy practices to cope with the social meanings and identities in each setting. They explain that this “emphasis on identities and social meanings draws attention to deep affective and ideological conflicts in such switching and use of the linguistic repertoire” (p. 159). In comparison to the academic socialisation model, the students’ switching practices are one of the key differences between the two models.

In their seminal article that outlines academic literacies as a framework to study writing, Lea and Street (1998) described their research carried out to examine the academic staff and students’ expectations and interpretations of undergraduate students’ written assignments. They used the academic literacies framework to interpret the data. The research was done at two universities, which they identified as new and traditional universities. Thirteen academic staff and 26 students were interviewed in the new university, while ten academic staff and 21 students were interviewed in the older university. The sample was not representative of the university populations; the research used case studies to explore theoretical issues and generate questions for further study. An ‘ethnographic style’ approach was used, and the data was collected from semi-structured interviews, participant observation, samples of students’ writing, written feedback on students’ work and handouts on essay writing.

The interviews were done to get the academic staff and students’ interpretations of the requirements of student writing. The findings from the interview with staff revealed that although they could describe the criteria for successful writing, they had difficulties when asked to give explicit explanations of what a well-developed argument should be in a written assignment. On the other hand, students also had problems

understanding what was really required of them in writing. Another area of difference between tutors and students was their perceptions of the concept of plagiarism. In addition, students also had problems interpreting feedback on their work, especially with regard to modality. It was highlighted that the use of modality actually demonstrated the authority of the tutors.

Three themes were identified from the study: the first one focused on students; the second one focused on student-tutor interactions; and the third one focused on the institution. The first theme suggested that students lack basic skills, which could be addressed by a remedial course. There was an assumption that knowledge could be transferred, and there was no consideration of the student interaction with institutional practices. The second one was concerned with issues such as tutor feedback and identity, which were identified from the interaction of student and tutor. The third theme was on the implications of the institutional practices such as assessment and procedures on student writing. In summary, Lea and Street (1998) found that the academic literacies model from which they viewed the data suggested,

a more complex and contested interpretation in which the process of student writing and tutor feedback are defined through implicit assumptions about what constitutes valid knowledge within a particular context, and the relationships of authority that exist around the communication of these assumptions. The nature of this authority and the claims associated with it can be identified through both formal, linguistic features of the writing involved and in the social and institutional relationships associated with it. (p. 170)

In essence, tutors and students appeared to have different expectations and interpretations with regard to student writing, and what makes it more complex is that the tutors have different ways of viewing what constitutes a piece of good writing. The gaps between academic staff expectations and student interpretations indicated by their findings might explain problems in student writing, and this has also inspired me to conduct my research. The fact that lecturers themselves are not sure of or have different ideas about what a good piece of academic writing is has also been revealed by other research (Harwood & Hadley, 2004).

Ken Hyland, in his plenary speech given at the Enhancing Learning Experience in Higher Education international conference in 2010, discusses some aspects of academic literacy and EAP. He challenges the idea that writing is exclusively related to the more 'serious' aspects of university life like conducting research and teaching students. He argues that "universities are ABOUT writing and that specialist forms of academic literacy are at the heart of everything we do...it is central to constructing knowledge, educating students and negotiating a professional academic career" (Hyland, 2013b, p. 53). He claims that university writing causes difficulties for students and that it is important to interview students to uncover their perceptions of writing before making any overgeneralisations of their culture. Citing a model of writing which separates language, writer and context, he argues that the implications of such a model results in a single literacy – that there is only one kind of academic language which is regarded as a bit more difficult than everyday language. He believes that this, in turn, leads language centres to design courses that tend to be 'voluntary' rather than 'compulsory', general and isolated. He says, "English for Academic Purposes (EAP), the practice of academic literacy instruction, thus becomes a kind of support mechanism on the margins of academic work" (Hyland, 2013b, p. 58). Secondly, he also adds that if we only look at academic writing as just an extension of everyday language, any writing problems will be treated as a deficiency in the students. This will divert attention from what the students actually need in their course to something 'remedial' in nature, which means that we are not tackling the real problems in student writing. He remains critical of the study skills model (subsection 2.5).

Therefore, he proposes the concept of 'literacies as practices' ('literacies' refers to language use as something we do while interacting with people; 'practices' refers to the notion that language activities are connected to everyday contexts) as a tool to understand student writing in higher education as this will help us to "see that texts do not exist in isolation but are part of the communicative routines of social communities" (Hyland, 2013b, p. 59). Barton and Hamilton (1998) define literacy practices as "the general cultural ways of utilising written language which people draw upon in their lives. In the simplest sense literacy practices are what people do with literacy" (p. 6). Hyland's concept is in congruence with Lea and Street's (1998, 2006) academic

literacies model which also sees literacies as social practices; a concept drawn from the ‘new literacy studies’ and discussed by Street (1984, 1995). To give a new perspective to views on literacy practices across different cultures, Street (1984, 1995) argues against the ‘autonomous’ model of literacy and proposes the ‘ideological’ model that looks at the social nature of literacy practices. Street (1995) states,

I distinguished between an autonomous model of literacy, whose exponents studied literacy in its technical aspects, independent of social context, and an ideological model, employed by recent researchers whose concern has been to see literacy practices as inextricably linked to cultural and power structures in a given society. (p. 161)

He uses the term ‘ideological’ to reflect that literacy practices do not only involve culture but also power structures. According to Lea (2004), the academic literacies approach is related to the new literacies studies, which challenge the view that literacy is about acquiring a certain set of cognitive skills that can be used without any problem in any context. This is one of the main differences between the academic literacies model and the academic socialisation model. Literacies are social and cultural practices that vary depending on the context. Lea states that the academic literacies model has been used in studies in the contexts of higher education and investigating the gaps between teachers and students’ understanding of written assignments. These studies have revealed students’ difficulties in writing, and have given information on the relationship between texts, students, and practices in the writing process.

In the last two decades, the academic literacies approaches have been applied in research in the UK and other places (Coffin & Donohue, 2012; Lillis, 2003). Wingate (2012) acknowledges that academic writing “took a new direction when Academic Literacies researchers began in the 1990s to reveal the shortcomings of writing instruction at UK universities” (p. 27). Furthermore, Wingate and Tribble (2012) highlight the work by Lea and Street (1998) as “the first to expose the inadequacy of academic writing instruction at UK universities” (p. 483). They also point out that the academic literacies model or approach to student writing sees student problems in writing “to be at the epistemological rather than the linguistic level, and often caused by gaps between academic staff expectations and student interpretations of what is

involved in academic writing” (p. 483). In addition, Coffin and Donohue (2012) discuss academic literacies as one of the approaches to EAP by comparing it with systemic functional linguistics (SFL) approaches. Furthermore, Lea’s (2004) case study has shown the implementation of the principles of course design based on the academic literacies model. Lea’s study shows how a course design can adopt an academic literacies model. In addition, Jacobs (2005) explores how academic literacies practitioners and disciplinary specialists constructed their understandings of an integrated academic literacy instruction into different disciplines.

On the other hand, Wingate (2012), despite acknowledging the usefulness of the academic literacies model to move away from a study skills model towards a discipline-embedded approach, argues that the academic literacies model has not resulted in significant changes at the institutional level and has not developed any writing pedagogy, thus limiting its impact on higher education policy. In addition, Wingate and Tribble (2012) claim that the academic literacies approach has never proposed pedagogical guidelines. Those who advocate an academic literacies approach have criticised the focus on discipline-specific texts in EAP, but they only proposed a few practical alternatives to the models they criticised.

In summary, although studies have been done on the academic literacies model, the model still has not had a significant impact that could have possibly promoted it to mainstream EAP. The following section will discuss the third controversy in EAP – the pragmatic and critical perspectives.

2.6 EAP: Pragmatic and Critical Perspectives

Hyland (2006) has claimed that pragmatic and critical perspectives on EAP is a central issue following the two controversies discussed earlier (see sections 2.4 and 2.5). In the last two decades, the field of EAP has witnessed a rising number of debates between advocates of pragmatic EAP and critical EAP in various contexts such as L2 writing, pedagogies and needs analysis. One of the early debates began after Santos (1992) claimed that L2 writing should be characterised by pragmatism and should not be ideological and political. She feels that it is easier and less problematic to be political at the local level (L1 writing), but not at the international level (L2 writing).

This claim has brought about a series of discussions on pragmatism and criticality in EAP (Allison, 1994, 1996; Belcher, 2006; Benesch, 1993, 2001b, 2009; Hyland, 2006; Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002; Pennycook, 1997; Swales, 1997; Swales, Barks, Ostermann, & Simpson, 2001).

Pragmatism is the mainstream movement or approach in EAP, applied linguistics and L2 writing (Canagarajah, 2002; Santos, 2001). Santos (1992) asserts that by taking the pragmatic stance, the pedagogic approach to ESL writing especially in EAP should focus on preparing students to write their assignments. She adds that “pursuing political goals and/or changing students’ sociopolitical consciousness is not on the ESL writing agenda” (p. 9). Pragmatic EAP assumes that “students should accommodate themselves to the demands of academic assignments, behaviours expected in academic classes, and hierarchical arrangements within academic institutions” (Benesch, 2001a, p. 41). In a pragmatic approach to EAP, students are assisted to “fit unquestioningly into subordinate roles in their disciplines and courses” (Hyland, 2006, p. 30). Teachers take an active role to decide basically on everything about a course – the syllabus, the students’ tasks and the content delivery. Hyland adds that one of the main objectives of this approach is “to empower learners by initiating them into the ways of making meanings that are valued in their target courses and disciplines” (p. 31). Developing learners’ academic communicative competence is also emphasised in this approach. Nonetheless, the fact that teachers are the ones playing an active role compared to students may be seen as limiting the students from exploring their full role as learners.

Santos disagrees with the notion that L2 writing is ideological and political, a theory associated with social constructivism and linked to a political ideology which is Marxist in nature. According to Santos (2001), Marxism is a political ideology associated with critical theory, which focuses on inequality and social injustice. Critical theory places its main emphasis on power relations, power structures and transformation, as stated by Santos (2001):

The aims and methods of critical theory are threefold: (a) To problematize every dominant site in society (e.g., the legal and educational systems) and every subject matter (e.g., literature and language studies) by exposing the unequal

power relations operating within them that marginalize and exclude subordinate groups; (b) to contest the power structures of these sites and subjects through challenge and resistance; and (c) to subvert and transform them through actions that will effect a shift in power from the privileged and the powerful to those groups struggling to gain a measure of control over their lives. (p. 175)

In contrast to pragmatic perspectives, social constructivists reject the view that writing is an act of an individual mind trying to communicate a message, but see writing as a social act that relates the individual with the society. This position is related to critical theory and critical pedagogy (Pennycook, 1989). Santos (2001) states that critical theory that has turned into practice is known as critical pedagogy, where schools are regarded as sites of political struggle, educators as transformative agents, and individual empowerment and social transformation as the education goals. In critical pedagogy, a critical approach to second language teaching focuses on the relationships between language learning and social change (Norton & Toohey, 2004). In the context of EAP, Hyland (2006) mentions that critical EAP is responsible in helping students to understand the power relations in their disciplines. Canagarajah (2002) shares his critical perspectives in the context of critical writing. He defines the critical orientation in writing from the following perspectives: (1) writing as situated – what we write will not stop at the product but will reach others; (2) writing as social – it involves unintended audience which shapes the text; (3) writing as material – it is not just a mental activity but involves resources to write (stationery, access to publication, etc.); (4) writing as ideological – writing is more than language and structure but it represents reality and encompasses values; and (5) from writing as spatial to writing as historical – writing can evolve through time. In brief, critical writing is a shift from “writing as an object to writing as an activity” (Canagarajah, 2002, p. 6).

In response to Santos (1992), Benesch (1993), advocating a critical stance on EAP, has argued that all forms of ESL instruction are ideological. Benesch labels Santos' view of avoidance of ideology in EAP as 'accommodationist ideology'. She remarks that pragmatic EAP does not actually avoid ideology as claimed, but embraces accommodationist ideology to adapt students to the status quo. EAP is ideological because education itself is political and never neutral, as there are always people who

get to decide what to teach, how to teach, who gets taught, where to teach, and what to assess (Benesch, 2001b; Pennycook, 1989; Shor, 1992). In other words, absolute neutrality does not exist; “everything is value ridden and ideological” (Canagarajah, 2002, p. 18). Pennycook asserts that whoever wishes to deny the political struggle at school is clearly indicating an ideological position favouring the status quo. Additionally, Benesch (1993) believes that pragmatic EAP that supports the status quo is as political as critical EAP that questions the status quo.

Allison (1994, 1996) has challenged Benesch’s (1993) perceptions of how pragmatic EAP views ideology. According to him, pragmatically inclined EAP writers have not avoided ideological issues, but recognised the importance of value judgements on ideological matters. EAP pragmatism, according to Allison (1996), is “seeking to fit ESL students, and perhaps their teachers as well, into approved and unquestioned subordinate roles in an educational status quo” (p. 85). In his argument, he characterises pragmatic approaches as capable of achieving diverse educational and ideological goals that might eventually promote change. On the other hand, Pennycook (1997) responds to Allison’s (1996) defence of pragmatic EAP by arguing that pragmatism is an ideology in itself, a view similar to Benesch’s. He claims that pragmatism in EAP is inclined towards ‘vulgar pragmatism’ instead of ‘critical pragmatism’, the terms introduced by Cherryholmes which suggest a position concerned with maintaining the status quo for the former, and objecting to neutrality in EAP for the latter. According to Cherryholmes (1988), vulgar pragmatism values functional efficiency; it is based on “unreflective acceptance of explicit and implicit standards, conventions, rules, and discourses-practices that we find around us” (p. 151). In brief, it accepts existing institutional practices which have become the standard. Canagarajah (2002), in the context of academic writing, argues that the pragmatic practitioners “adopt a normative attitude to the knowledge of academic disciplines” (p. 130). In this attitude, EAP practitioners encourage students to accept academic knowledge and use it in their writing, and are not encouraged to question the knowledge with reference to their own interests and experiences. Cherryholmes asserts that valuing efficiency without criticism “often promotes the advantage of those who are already advantaged while rhetorically claiming to aid those who are disadvantaged” (p. 152). On the other hand, critical

pragmatism “results when a sense of crisis is brought to our choices, when it is accepted that our standards, beliefs, values, guiding texts, and discourses-practices themselves require evaluation and reappraisal” (p. 151), as opposed to vulgar pragmatism which keeps to traditional and conventional norms in its practices. Benesch (2001a) too acknowledges that pragmatism needs to be ‘critical’ rather than ‘vulgar’. She sees that EAP still has “a pragmatic function to perform” (p. 42) other than for academic and social transformation.

Benesch (2001a) has further explored the concept of critical EAP in her book, *Critical English for Academic Purposes: Theory, Politics and Practice*, by first presenting the history of EAP that has left the impression that EAP is neutral, that it has grown because of the demand by learners, and that learners want to learn it unreservedly. Notwithstanding this traditional assumption, Benesch views this notion of EAP as upholding the ideology of pragmatism with the interest to expand certain political and economic interests. She proposes critical EAP to address the limitations of traditional EAP.

The theoretical foundations of Benesch’s critical EAP have been influenced by Paulo Freire and Michael Foucault, and also feminist writers such as Kathleen Weiler, Carmen Luke and Jennifer Gore. Freire’s theory of hope in critical EAP rejects the idea that “prevailing conditions are fixed and that students must unconditionally accept requirements if they are to succeed in academic life and in the larger society” (Benesch, 2001a, p. 60). Additionally, critical EAP applies Foucault’s concepts of power to understand power relations. Benesch explains that Foucault sees power “not as something that dominant members of society have over subordinated members but, rather, in terms of the relationship between power and resistance” (p. 54). Foucault stresses that power and resistance coexist. In addition, Gore and other feminists seek to create possibilities for equality by addressing power relations in the classroom and creating awareness among students of the role of power in their lives (Benesch, 1999). Feminist writers’ proposals of greater attention to multiple identities (e.g., race, gender, ethnicity) and ‘situatedness’ of students’ and teachers’ subjectivities and histories are also applied to refine critical pedagogy. ‘Situatedness’ and ‘dialogue’ are important tenets in critical EAP. ‘Situatedness’ rejects the idea that “teachers should accept and

perpetuate externally imposed requirements of the local context” (Benesch, 2001a, p. 52). On the other hand, she states that students need to be taught to question and challenge the teaching and learning process inside and outside the classroom as well. She explains,

Education that ignores the condition of students’ lives and simply focuses on transferring knowledge denies students their humanity. It refuses the challenge of engaging in a teaching/learning process, called *dialogue*, in which both teacher and student have opportunities to become more fully human. (p. 52)

With regard to ‘dialogue’, Benesch (2001a) believes that students should not just be asked to give feedback on issues pertaining to methods and materials only, but they should also be involved in curricular and pedagogical decision-making. According to Freire (2003), “Without dialogue there is no communication, and without communication there can be no true education” (pp. 92-93). Critical EAP lets teachers and students “examine externally imposed demands and negotiate their responses to them”, and offers “alternatives to unquestioning obedience, assuming that students have the right to interrogate the demands they face” (Benesch, 2001a, p. 53).

Benesch (2001a) believes that a critical approach to EAP is necessary to allow for a more “nuanced and dynamic relationship between target situations and students’ purposes, desires and aspirations” (p. 35). According to Benesch (2009), critical EAP “considers hierarchical arrangements in the societies and institutions in which EAP takes place, examining power relations and their reciprocal relationship to the various players and materials involved” (p. 81). Furthermore, in *Journal of English for academic purposes* special issue on critical EAP in 2009, Benesch discusses critical EAP’s role in the globalising world and its contributions to research and pedagogy in EAP. She sees globalisation as a conducive platform for social changes, and for critical EAP to relate academic English to a larger sociopolitical context.

The issue of which approach to be advocated between pragmatic and critical EAP has also been discussed (Belcher, 2006; Canagarajah, 2002; Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002; Hyland, 2006; Swales, 1997; Swales et al., 2001). Swales (1997) and Swales et al. (2001) have taken rather a ‘middle-of-the-road’ stance in response to pragmatic versus critical EAP, albeit being more inclined towards accommodationist or

pragmatic approach. Swales (1997) holds the view that “pragmatism is open to ideology when ideology is salient – even though making any such judgement of salience is itself a complex matter” (p. 375). Hyland and Hamp-Lyons (2002) raise a question of whether EAP should develop academic discourse for effective participation in academic communities, or provide students with ways to challenge the existing discourse. Hyland (2006) states that one of the objectives of pragmatic EAP is to empower students by introducing them to the ways of making meanings in their target courses and disciplines to develop academic competence. Even though there is a risk of teachers limiting students’ creativity and sacrificing their academic identities to the genres and discourses in the academy, it has the “potential for helping students to reflect on and critique the ways in which knowledge and information are organized and constructed in their disciplines” (p. 31). In contrast, critical EAP encourages students to question the types of activities that they do in class. Moreover, although pragmatists see meeting student needs as empowering, critical EAP sees it as a form of domination or “the hold of developed world on the less developed” (Belcher, 2006, p. 143). Hyland and Hamp-Lyons (2002) and Hyland (2006) conclude that making the choice between pragmatic or critical EAP requires more understanding of the real-world consequences of applying the approach. This is especially directed at critical EAP, which is broadly theoretical and requires classroom situated exploration, as EAP classrooms “are complex and hostile to innovation and critique” (Hyland, 2006, p. 35). Hyland also raises a concern over the inquiring attitude encouraged in critical EAP, as issues are more often raised by teachers than students – giving the impression that the teachers are speaking for the students instead of assisting the students to speak for themselves.

On a different note, critical EAP shares some similarities with the academic literacies approach. Like Street (1995) who used the term ‘ideological’ to refer to culture and power structures in literacy practices, Benesch (2001b) also describes critical EAP as ideological as it examines power relations and hierarchical arrangements in societies and institutions. This is also supported by Hyland (2006) who states that critical approaches in EAP

share an orientation with the ‘academic literacies’ approach to EAP by recognizing that there are various literacies, or sets of social communicative

practices, in everyday life and emphasizing how access to institutionally valued literacies has the power to enhance or reduce people's life chances. (p. 32)

In the context of the university where I work, it is pragmatic EAP that has been adopted in the academic writing course (EAW). CELPAD has taken the role to decide on the syllabus, the students' tasks and the content delivery, and the students have to accommodate themselves to the requirements of the research papers. I personally believe that pragmatic EAP is effective to meet short-term needs of the institution, such as providing necessary skills for students to write their assignments, playing its role as accommodationist (Benesch, 1993). It seems to be a student-friendly approach, where students only need to accept what have been decided for them and strive to meet the course's prescribed targets instead of spending time to think about issues surrounding the course and addressing them. However, by not addressing issues like the political issues in the curricular and pedagogical decision-making and the students'/lecturers' voice in the course, we are limiting the opportunities especially for the students and also lecturers to be conscious about optimising what students can learn. This is related to the notion of situatedness and dialogue in critical EAP as discussed earlier (Benesch, 2001a) – to give opportunities for teachers and students to become more fully human.

The following subsection will discuss how critical EAP can be extended from a theoretical position to a practical application.

2.6.1 Critical EAP: From theories to practice.

There is growing attention to critical EAP among EAP practitioners, as it has become a topic of debates in the field of EAP. Hence, EAP practitioners have begun publishing work related to critical EAP (Hamp-Lyons, 2011). Harwood and Hadley (2004) compare the pragmatic EAP approach with the critical EAP approach, and propose the critical pragmatic EAP approach to be applied pedagogically. The critical pragmatic EAP approach is demonstrated by activities for postgraduate and research students. According to them, pragmatic EAP is a skills-based approach that aims to give students awareness of the dominant conventions in Anglo-American writing, also called dominant discourses. International students are expected to adapt to the dominant discourses of the academy, whereas when writing research papers, new researchers or

‘neophytes’ must just follow the rules, which can only be broken by experienced researchers. On the other hand, the critical EAP approach condemns pragmatic EAP. It claims that the pragmatic approach leads students to become passive and unquestioning learners. By requiring students to just follow the academic conventions in dominant discourses, students are just imitating their tutors’ discourse practices rather than learning them. In addition, L2 researchers face discrimination when they want to publish their work, as their manuscripts may not look appealing to the journal editors compared to the ones produced by L1 researchers. This is because many journal editors, who are North American or western European, have negative attitudes towards English used by L2 researchers (Flowerdew, 2000, as cited in Harwood & Hadley, 2004). Critical EAP also argues that academic discourse practices are not fixed but are socially constructed and open to change.

Harwood and Hadley (2004) argue that critical EAP and pragmatic EAP can be prescriptive, and call for the critical pragmatic EAP which combines the best of both. They say,

Critical EAP can seem reactionary, pressuring students to deliberately flout established practices without good reason. Pragmatic EAP, on the other hand, can be seen as equally prescriptive as it appears to assume that every student can and should conform to these established practices. We suggest that a Critical Pragmatic pedagogy will combine the restive questioning of Critical EAP (while avoiding its more reactionary elements), with the focus on dominant discourse norms which a pragmatic approach stresses. (p. 366)

They have introduced corpus-based critical pragmatism, a proposed solution to the issue of tension that arises when trying to distinguish writing conventions. They divide writing conventions into two categories. The first category consists of the conventions that students should not flout (e.g., ‘you must substantiate your argument’, ‘you must not plagiarise’). The second category comprises conventions that students may be able to flout (e.g., the use of personal pronoun ‘I’). To inform EAP teachers of the relevant conventions in the disciplines, they suggest the use of corpus data to provide “at least a degree of insight into the discourse practices of any discipline” (p. 368). They then provide some pedagogical activities to show how this can be done.

Harwood and Hadley's (2004) proposed alternative to the pedagogy in the teaching of academic writing serves as a guide for EAP practitioners to consider using corpora, for example in helping students to deal with the issue of identities in writing.

Morgan (2009) has discussed possibilities for EAP practitioners to apply the theory in critical EAP in practice. He describes his efforts in promoting the conceptual role of transformative practitioner in a language teacher education (LTE) programme through an Issues Analysis Project (IAP), a group assignment for TESOL students. Morgan first claims that EAP practitioners have usually been exposed to the conceptual role of 'technician' – the language-support specialist. Another alternative role for them is the role of a 'reflective' practitioner, which Morgan sees as limited to pragmatic concerns. For example, EAP instructors make reflections on their efficiency of teaching methods instead of the cultural biases of the methods. Morgan proposes that EAP instructors should play the role of 'transformative' practitioner, a conceptual role originating from critical EAP, and rejects the conceptual role of a technician as the only professional role available for EAP instructors. Being a transformative practitioner, EAP instructors should explore issues of ideology, power and inequality to promote institutional change and social justice. In promoting this role to new teachers in LTE, he asks some questions to reflect on why critical EAP and the role of transformative practitioner have been insignificant in EAP. The questions and what he does with his students to address the questions are summarised in Table 3.

Table 3. *Questions for Critical EAP and Actions to Address the Questions*

	Questions	Actions
1.	Are the key texts that promote critical pedagogies inaccessible and over-theorized?	Increase the number of readings that combine theory with practice and that describe teachers' decision-making process in taking up a transformative role within particular institutional constraints and course responsibilities.
2.	Do we inadvertently promote pedagogies of despair and pessimism?	Consider the meanings students might produce around provocative metaphors such as linguistic imperialism and linguistic genocide. Also, provide texts that speak to the many joys of language teaching and offer hope and dialogue along with critical inquiry.
3.	To what extent do we exaggerate the capacity for teachers to become change agents?	Include a number of readings in the socio-politics course that offer a diversity of forms and ways of doing transformative work in EAP and ESL settings.
4.	Defining a transformative agenda for EAP: Towards what end and whose vision in pre-service LTE?	When sharing ideas about course content, present the critical perspective (and the transformative practitioner's role) as an option, not as a requirement. Also, maintain a degree of 'productive doubt' around prior beliefs in dialogic interactions with students.

Note: Morgan (2009, pp. 89-90)

The four questions in Table 3 are based on concerns and issues that might discourage LTE students from adopting the role of transformative practitioner in EAP. Morgan asserts that by reflecting on these questions, EAP instructors can move from theory to practice in an LTE setting. Apart from the questions, he outlines six key elements to create effective conditions to promote a transformative awareness in LTE:

- A. Attention to situated constraints, institutional power relations;
- B. Attention to textual patterns and cycles (sequencing/composition) of texts, including talk about and around texts;
- C. Attention to multimodal resources (digital, visual, print, gestures, spatial) and their "affordances";
- D. Students as active meaning makers and not passive recipients
- E. Teacher/Student identities as texts;
- F. Critical/Transformative awareness as an *emergent* phenomenon, *potentially* arising from the interaction of all the points above.

(Morgan, 2009, p. 91)

What Morgan has done here is translate Benesch's (2001a) conceptual approach of critical EAP to practical application for EAP practitioners. Point A emphasises the values of juxtaposing needs analysis and rights analysis; needs analysis addresses institutional academic requirements, whereas rights analysis looks at the socio-political aspects of the requirements and possibilities for change. Points B and D highlight the importance of creating opportunities for students to give their critical insights as teachers conduct multiple readings and discussions of texts. The notion of 'affordances' in Point C means that critical EAP practitioners must realise that students should benefit from the resources in the course, such as the EAP text, by being able to relate to them. In addition, the use of multimodal resources engaging identities and meaning-making can also contribute to creating a transformative awareness. Moreover, teachers' and students' identities also can be used in transformative ways to become a textual resource to strengthen course content and facilitate meaning-making (Point E). Finally, Point F concludes that the awareness of these values may be raised from practising the rest of the points. In other words, transformative or critical awareness is an emergent phenomenon. Morgan's questions in Table 3 and the six key elements are useful for EAP practitioners to consider when practicing critical EAP in pedagogy. They can serve as a guide for EAP teachers to become transformative practitioners to be able to explore issues of ideology, power and inequality in their institutions.

Chun (2016) has shared his experience conducting an ethnographic EAP classroom case study to examine critical pedagogies approach. His study aims at bridging the gap between critical theories and actual classroom practices in the context of TESOL classrooms. In collecting his data, he carried out classroom observations for 11 months, interviews with an EAP instructor and her students, research discussions with the instructor, and curriculum material analysis. With a belief that dialogues between critically oriented researchers and new practitioners are important to deal with racialised discourses in the TESOL classroom, he looks at how an instructor addresses racialised discourses in discussing an EAP textbook chapter with her students. Chun asserts that racialised discourses need closer examination to address issues of cultures and identities, power relations, and inequitable institutional arrangements. This is because such discourses encompass the power dynamics of the people constructing and

defining racialised identities, and the people who are being defined. He raises questions of whether such decisions can only be made by the text and/or the teacher, or whether they can also come from the students. Critical pedagogies in addressing racialised discourses may involve discussions on the privileged or omitted/ignored representations in the society and the use of meaning-making resources (e.g., lexical and grammatical choices) to show how social realities are presented. He believes that the use of critical pedagogies can help create dialogic space for students to be able to construct meanings in their own ways. In addition, a dialogical interaction between teachers and students will achieve critical engagements with the texts.

Drawing on his study, Chun (2016) illustrates two approaches used by the instructor with her students in addressing racialised multicultural discourses in an EAP textbook chapter reading in two classroom lessons at a public university in Canada. He wants to show how the instructor's different approaches inhibited or aided interactions with students. In the first lesson, the instructor asked her students to read a chapter of an EAP textbook. However, the discussion that followed the chapter's construction of a hypothetical immigrant consumer named Jennifer Wong, and the students' meaning-making did not develop beyond succinct and often one-word replies. The type of replies suggests that the approach, which frames the cultural identity of Jennifer Wong in static ways, limited the class discussion. There was a lack of critical engagement with the discourses, limiting the students' opportunities to "exercise and develop their academic language and literacy skills in having extended dialogues on culture, race, community, and identities" (p. 126). On the other hand, before the second lesson, Chun had several meetings with the instructor, during which the instructor shared her own racialised experiences and related them to the chapter's discourses. Drawing on this, her approach in the second class was different. Chun stresses that the instructor's second approach in discussing the identity of Jennifer Wong shows "a move toward a critical, dialogic approach in which the students were able to create more interrogative meanings addressing the chapter's representations of race and culture" (p. 127). The instructor's approach, which encourages reading against the text, led to an expanded meaning-making among the students. Reflecting on this and relating it to his own transformations as a critical EAP practitioner, Chun states that it is imperative that critical pedagogies

theories are made accessible and practical to practitioners, as some theorists do not move from theoretical to practical contexts.

Harwood and Hadley (2004), Morgan (2009) and Chun (2016) have attempted to extend critical EAP from a theoretical position to a practical application. Harwood and Hadley describe how critical pragmatic EAP, a combination of critical and pragmatic EAP, can be applied by using corpora in teaching academic writing. In addition, Morgan's study discusses how critical EAP can transform EAP practitioners to be able to explore issues of ideology, power and inequality when practicing critical EAP pedagogy. He uses Benesch's (2001a) conceptual approach of critical EAP and translates it into questions and six key elements which can be referred to by EAP practitioners. Moreover, Chun demonstrates how critical theories can be applied in actual classroom practices by illustrating two approaches used by an instructor with her students in addressing racialised multicultural discourses in an EAP textbook chapter. Their studies suggest that critical EAP is getting acknowledged by researchers as having the potential to play a significant role in the field of EAP. However, what they offer is far from sufficient to claim that critical EAP is as popular as the traditional or pragmatic approach in the field of EAP. What the studies demonstrated is just a step towards cementing the critical approach as an established practice, which is currently dominated by the approaches discussed earlier – the EGAP, study skills and pragmatic models of EAP. This scenario can also be related to the next subject of discussion – needs analysis – which is another dominant influence in EAP.

2.7 EAP and Needs Analysis

The main subject in the conceptual framework in investigating academic writing needs in this research is needs analysis (also NA). Needs analysis is a prominent feature of an ESP/EAP course (Flowerdew, 2013; Jordan, 1997; Long, 2005; Robinson, 1991). The following subsections will discuss its origins, importance, definitions, prominent models, pragmatic and critical approaches in needs analysis, and some selected studies.

2.7.1 Origins and importance.

According to West (1994), the term ‘analysis of needs’ was first used in India in the 1920s when Michael West introduced it to explain two concepts of ‘need’: what learners have to do with the foreign language in the target situation; and how learners could best master the target language. These concepts of need had not been used since then until the term ‘need’ came back into use with the establishment of ESP. After language teachers’ use of intuitive or informal analysis of students' needs, the concept of a formal needs analysis was established in the 1970s, with Richterich and Chancerel’s systems approach and Munby’s taxonomy of skills and functions becoming the needs-analysis prototypes during that time (Benesch, 2001a). Benesch explained that according to Jordan (1997), Richterich and Chancerel’s systems approach was sponsored by the Council of Europe and was based on ‘present situation analysis’ – an ongoing assessment of a large number of variables comprising the learner, teacher, institution, curriculum, assessment and the interaction among them. On the other hand, Munby’s approach was based on ‘target situation analysis’, which focused on precourse assessment of the skills required in future courses. His work, also known as Munby’s Communicative Syllabus Design, had been recognised as vital in ESP course design (West, 1994).

Generally, the process of ESP course design should start with identifying the target situation and then conducting a thorough analysis of the linguistic features of the situation (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). According to Chambers (1980), “ESP by its nature is student-task oriented” (p. 25). Therefore, needs analysis is the first thing that has to be done in an ESP course design to set the content and implement the course (Benesch, 1999; Flowerdew, 2013; Long, 2005) and this concept of needs has remained important in ESP (Basturkmen, 2006; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Hyland, 2013c; Munby, 1978; Robinson, 1991). The centrality of needs analysis in ESP/EAP has been well documented (Benesch, 2001a; Serafini et al., 2015). Basturkmen (2006) illustrates the importance of needs analysis by citing a common constraint in learning – time. She writes: “As students in ESP classes often have restricted time to learn English, it makes sense to teach them only the bits of English they need. Thus the task of the ESP course developer is to identify the needs of the learner and design a course around them” (p.

18). Furthermore, Hyland (2006) states that needs analysis is important to form an idea of learning goals related to the teachers' values, beliefs and philosophies of teaching and learning. Thus, needs analysis has a pivotal role in ensuring that an ESP course is designed in the best way possible, taking into account problems that can be foreseen and overcome, and matching learning outcomes with effective syllabus and pedagogy.

2.7.2 Definitions/concepts.

Needs analysis and related concepts (learner needs, needs assessment) have been discussed and presented in the context of ESP/EAP in a number of prominent works over several decades (Basturkmen, 2006; Benesch, 2001a; Brown, 2016; Chambers, 1980; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Flowerdew, 2013; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Hyland, 2006; Johns & Makalela, 2011; Long, 2005; Munby, 1978; Robinson, 1991; West, 1994; Widdowson, 1983). Hence, the definition of needs analysis has evolved and varies according to the period in which it is addressed. Widdowson (1983) describes needs analysis by first giving the definition of 'register analysis' by Halliday, McIntosh and Stevens (1964):

Registers...differ primarily in form...the crucial criteria of any given register are to be found in its grammar and its lexis... It is by their formal properties that registers are defined. If two samples of language activity from what, on non-linguistic grounds, could be considered different situation-types show no differences in grammar or lexis, they are assigned to one and the same register... (pp. 88-89)

Describing the term 'register analysis' and 'needs analysis' as commonly understood terms, Widdowson uses the term 'needs analysis' to refer to a method which characterises language behaviour in terms of specific notions and functions. He explains that 'needs analysis' can be carried out as a "straightforward register analysis, itemizing the occurrence of formal linguistic features" (p. 29). His definition does not describe specific criteria of how to conduct a needs analysis; it rather regards needs analysis as register analysis.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) relate 'needs' to 'analysis' by defining needs as "the ability to comprehend and/or produce the linguistic features of the target situation"

(p. 54), and positioning it in relation to a few concepts of analysis, with a distinction between ‘target needs’ (what learners need to do in the target situation – categorised as ‘necessities’, ‘lacks’ and ‘wants’) and ‘learning needs’ (what learners need to do to learn) (see section 2.7.3.2 for fuller discussion).

In a different approach, Robinson (1991) differentiates the meaning of needs and needs analysis. Using a few other scholars’ definitions of needs, she highlights that needs can refer to: (1) what students have to be able to do at the completion of a language course; (2) what the institution or society sees as suitable to be learnt from a language course; (3) what needs to be done by the learners to really acquire the language; (4) what the learners would like to get from the language programme; and (5) what the learners do not know or cannot do in English – also referred to as ‘lacks’. She refers to the concept of needs in needs analysis by using the terms ‘Target Situation Analysis’ (TSA) and ‘Present Situation Analysis’ (PSA) (see section 2.7.3.3 for fuller discussion).

Additionally, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) describe needs analysis as “the process of establishing the *what* and *how* of a course” (p. 121), and add another accompanying component to it, referred to as ‘evaluation’ – “the process of establishing the effectiveness (of the course)” (p. 121). They also add to the concept of TSA and PSA by introducing LSA – Learning Situation Analysis – which refers to what learners already know.

Here are two different ways to encapsulate the meaning of needs analysis: one that is broad and multi-faceted by Hyland (2006); and the other by Brown (1995), which is a combination of definitions he found in the literature (as cited in Brown, 2016).

Needs analysis refers to the techniques for collecting and assessing information relevant to course design: it is the means of establishing the *how* and *what* of a course. It is a continuous process, since we modify our teaching as we come to learn more about our students, and in this way it actually shades into *evaluation* – the means of establishing the effectiveness of a course. *Needs* is actually an umbrella term that embraces many aspects, incorporating learners’ goals and backgrounds, their language proficiencies, their reasons for taking the course,

their teaching and learning preferences, and the situations they will need to communicate in. Needs can involve what learners know, don't know or want to know, and can be collected and analysed in a variety of ways. (Hyland, 2006, p. 73)

NA is the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situation. (Brown, 1995, p. 36, as cited in Brown, 2016, p. 4)

To better understand needs analysis, Brown (2016) first looks at the meaning of 'needs' in needs analysis. He asserts that one of the problems in doing needs analysis is because the word 'needs' has a number of different meanings – 'wants', 'desires', 'necessities', 'lacks', 'gaps', 'expectations', 'motivations', 'deficiencies', 'requirements', 'requests', 'prerequisites', 'essentials', 'the next step', and 'x + 1' (x is what a student already knows, plus the next step, or 1). Chambers (1980) claims that the term 'need' in needs analysis is ambiguous and imprecise, as it can refer to 'necessities' (e.g., Man needs water to live) and 'desires' (e.g., What I need is a long holiday somewhere in the sun). In a similar vein, Benesch (2001a) describes 'needs' as a psychological term (e.g., Students want something from an institution and can get it if they follow the rules) and also has a biological connotation (i.e. basic human needs like food and shelter).

Brown (2016) has made a clearer distinction of the various meanings by classifying the different views of needs in ESP into four categories as presented in Table 4.

Table 4. *Four Viewpoints on Needs*

<i>Needs viewpoints</i>	<i>Definition of needs</i>	<i>Related synonyms</i>
Democratic view	Whatever elements of the ESP majorities of all stakeholder groups want	Wants; desires; expectations; requests; motivations
Discrepancy view	The difference or discrepancy between what they should be able to do in the ESP and what they currently can do	Deficiencies; lacks; gaps; requirements
Analytic view	Whatever elements of the ESP students should learn next based on SLA theory and experience	Next step; $x + 1$
Diagnostic view	Whatever elements of the ESP will cause harm if they are missing	Necessities; essentials; prerequisites

Note: Brown (2016, p. 14)

The first category, the democratic view of needs, is about ‘whatever the most people want’. It has three benefits: (1) involvement of important groups of stakeholders; (2) with more people, more good ideas can be gathered; and (3) knowing what people think about the course at an early stage can lead to a successful curriculum. The second category, the discrepancy view, is related to the idea ‘whatever is missing’. This category also has three benefits: (1) it encourages early thoughts and formulation of programme goals and learning outcomes (instructional objectives); (2) it promotes the creation of targets and a sense of how far the students need to progress to achieve the targets; and (3) it encourages the view that the whole ESP course is a single package – the needs analysts’ involvement may be from the beginning till the end of the course. The next category, the analytic view, conveys the idea of ‘whatever logically comes next’. Brown (2016) views this understanding of needs as problematic because it assumes that the people in the field are well-versed with the hierarchy of learning points and the process in learning English. The final category is the diagnostic view, which concerns ‘whatever will do most harm if missing’. It leads to investigations of ESP situations that students are likely to encounter, anticipation of needs, prioritisation of needs that are likely to have negative consequences if not met, and inclusion of less important needs if there is enough time.

Brown (2016) also describes what the word ‘analysis’ means in needs analysis in ESP. He lists 11 analysis strategies, which are ways of examining, investigating,

exploring and analysing information to identify the current needs for a defensible curriculum in ESP. What each analysis strategy is, and the kind of information that it examines are presented below:

1. Target-situation use analyses
 - Analysis of what the students should be able to do in the ESP at the end of instruction;
 - To examine information on the language uses in the particular ESP and exemplars of those language uses.
2. Target-situation linguistic analyses
 - Analysis of what linguistic features the students will need to know and use in the ESP;
 - To examine information on the specific linguistic characteristics of the ESP (e.g., vocabulary, discourse markers, pragmatics and genres) in the exemplars gathered above.
3. Target-situation learning analyses
 - Analysis of what the features of learning and continuing to learn are in the ESP community;
 - To examine information about the target information in terms of the sorts of learning that students will need to do in target ESP situations at various stages.
4. Present-situation analyses
 - Analysis of what the students' ESP abilities are at the beginning of instruction;
 - To examine information on what the students can do with the language of the particular ESP at the outset of instruction (with respect to target-situation use, linguistics, and/or learning) – using tests or other observational techniques.

5. Gap analyses

- Analysis of what the disparities are between the students' current abilities and what they need to be able to do in the ESP;
- To examine information on the disparities between what the students can do at the beginning and the end of instruction with regard to the ESP – typically based on analysis of test scores or other observational techniques.

6. Individual-differences analyses

- Analysis of what students' individual preferences are with regard to learning processes;
- To examine information on students' individual preferences in learning strategies, learning styles, error correction, group sizes, amount of homework, and so forth.

7. Rights analyses

- Analysis of what the key power relationships are in the situation and how they are resisted;
- To examine information on the ways power is exerted and resisted within the ESP-teaching institution (in terms of teaching, materials, curriculum decisions, governing rules, and so forth), between that institution and other entities, or within the target ESP community.

8. Classroom-learning analyses

- Analysis of what the classroom-learning situation is or should be;
- To examine information on the selection and ordering of course content, teaching methods and materials that will be used in learning the ESP, and so forth (often requiring negotiations among stakeholder groups).

9. Classroom-teaching analyses

- Analysis of what the classroom-teaching situation is or should be;
- To examine information on the selection and ordering of course content, teaching methods and materials that will be used to teach the ESP, and so forth *from the teachers' perspectives*.

10. Means analyses

- Analysis of what the contextual constraints and strengths are;
- To examine information on the availability of funding, facilities, equipment, materials, and other resources; cultural attitudes that might affect instruction; and the teachers' proficiency levels in English, training, and teaching ability – all in terms of both constraints and strengths.

11. Language audits

- Analysis of what global strategic language policies should be adopted;
- To examine information aimed at regions (like the European community), countries, companies, professional groups, and so forth, such analyses typically ignore the needs of students in particular ESP situations, but can nonetheless inform local ESP NAs.

(Brown, 2016, pp. 19-20)

This section has presented some definitions and concepts of needs analysis. To put it in a simpler way, needs analysis is a continuous process of collecting information to understand what a course requires before it is developed, and also to evaluate the effectiveness of a course. Generally, it can be seen that the definitions have changed from Widdowson's (1983) to Hyland's (2006). The earlier concepts of needs analysis reflect the notion of target needs and present needs (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1991). These concepts have been integrated in many prominent models of needs analysis (e.g., Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1991). In a more recent definition by Hyland (2006), he adds the idea of evaluation (needs analysis to evaluate the effectiveness of a course) to his definition.

On a different note, Brown (2016) has dissected the concepts of needs analysis by breaking them into four viewpoints on needs (Table 4) and presented 11 analysis strategies. Nonetheless, the scope of Brown's discussion only represents the common practice of needs analysis in EAP. Looking back at the subjects of controversies in EAP that have been addressed in the earlier sections (EGAP and ESAP; study skills,

academic socialisation and academic literacies; pragmatic and critical perspectives on EAP), it can be observed that EGAP, study skills and pragmatic EAP share some similar notions (e.g., accommodating student needs with transferable language skills) and have been described as being the most common approaches in EAP (see Basturkmen, 2006; Hyland, 2002; Lea and Street, 2006; Santos, 2001). They can also be related to most models of needs analysis. On the other hand, ESAP, academic literacies and critical EAP are more associated with new ideas and controversies (e.g., discipline specificity, power relations in socio-political contexts) (see Benesch, 2001b; Hyland, 2006, 2013a & 2013b; Street, 1995). Even though Brown mentions ‘rights analyses’ (which reflects the power issues in needs analysis) as one of the analysis strategies, he has not discussed the concepts of power in needs analysis thoroughly or illustrated how this type of needs analysis can be applied (see section 2.7.4 for discussion of rights analysis). Addressing the critical approach in needs analysis is deemed necessary as it addresses the concept of power which has been the focus in the recent development of EAP. In other words, Brown’s discussions on needs analysis has overlooked the importance of rights analysis as a critical approach to needs analysis, an area which is starting to gain momentum in EAP.

2.7.3 Prominent models of needs analysis.

This section will describe three prominent models of needs analysis. The three models are the Communication Needs Processor (CNP) by Munby (1978), the target needs and learning needs by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), and the Target Situation Analysis (TSA) and Present Situation Analysis (PSA) by Robinson (1991). These models are selected because they have been influential and widely used in needs analysis, and they also represent the needs analysis associated with the mainstream approaches in EAP (e.g., EGAP and study skills models), as their main role is to collect and analyse the information necessary to satisfy the language learning requirements (Brown, 2016). These models indicate overlapping mechanisms and concepts in identifying needs, and have been contributing to identifying needs for various purposes. Nonetheless, there are criticisms of the models which have led to the establishment of a new model in needs analysis – rights analysis.

2.7.3.1 Communication Needs Processor (CNP) - Munby (1978).

The Communication Needs Processor (CNP) is formed based on the concept of language users' competence and its relationship to knowledge and communication. Drawing on some seminal works on the nature of competence and performance, Munby looks mainly at Chomsky's, Habermas', Halliday's and Hymes' viewpoints to develop the theoretical framework. The CNP sets two parameters to distinguish the variables that affect communication needs: the ones which process non-linguistic data and the other ones which provide data in the first place. The first ones are called the 'a posteriori', and the second ones are called the 'a priori'. The a priori parameters are: purposive domain, setting, interaction, and instrumentality; whereas the a posteriori parameters are: dialect, target level, communicative event, and communicative key.

The a priori parameters begin with 'participant' before they discuss the first component (purposive domain). This is the input, which comprises a minimum amount of potentially relevant information on identity (e.g., age, sex, nationality) and language (e.g., target language, mother tongue, other languages). Next, 'purposive domain' is the parameter where the type of ESP is first established (e.g., occupational, educational). Then, 'setting' is the parameter involved in the physical setting (e.g., workplace, school) and psychological setting (target language environments, e.g., culturally different, unfamiliar) where the target language is needed. Moreover, 'interaction' is the parameter where people with whom the participant has to communicate are identified and the kind of relationships expected are predicted (e.g., subordinate-superior). Finally, 'instrumentality' is the variable used to identify constraints on the input in terms of the medium (e.g., spoken or written), mode (text to be read or spoken) and channel (e.g., print or face-to-face) of communication.

The first a posteriori parameter is 'dialect'. Considering the constraints, the input can be processed for dialect (e.g., to differentiate whether the English is British or American). Second, 'target level' is the stage where the participant's target level of command has to be highlighted to lead to the further stages of the CNP. Then, 'communicative event' is the variable associated with what the participant has to do productively (e.g., seeking advice) or receptively (e.g., understanding diagrams). 'Communicative key', the last variable of the parameters, "is concerned with *how* (in

the sense of manner) one does the activities comprising an event (the *what* one does)” (Munby, 1978, p.38). This variable focuses on the participant’s attitude and tone. For example, the sentence ‘Take off your shoes’ is considered polite when spoken with a high fall intonation in a doctor-patient interaction, but impolite in a shop assistant-customer situation.

The CNP works at the pre-language stage in the specification of communicative competence. Comprehensive data banks are one of its strengths since they can be used as checklists for the syllabus produced (Robinson, 1991). Generally, this model is effective in identifying target situation needs. However, the complexity of the model seems to have too much focus on the steps in processing the non-linguistic data and the provider of the data, and it does not include an in-depth look at the learners in relation to their needs. It has also been criticised for “adopting a classification of language derived from social English, when the language used in real-world ESP situations differs from that predicted by some course designers” (West, 1994, as cited in Jasso-Aguilar, 1999, p. 30). The data collected are about the learners, not from the learners (Dehnad, Bagherzadeh, Bigdeli, Hatami & Hosseini, 2010). Furthermore, the issue of practicality is also one of the main criticisms of CNP; its use can be time consuming (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

2.7.3.2 Target needs and learning needs - Hutchinson and Waters (1987).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) acknowledge John Munby’s Communication Needs Processor (CNP) as a complete and widely recognised work on needs analysis to discover target situation needs. Realising that there is much more to needs than the linguistic features of the target situation in CNP, they initiate their work by first making a distinction between ‘target needs’ and ‘learning needs’. In their seminal work *English for Specific Purposes: A Learning-Centred Approach*, their description of their target situation analysis framework begins with the introduction of the term ‘target needs’ – explained in terms of ‘necessities’, ‘lacks’ and ‘wants’. ‘Necessities’ refers to what learners have to know to function in the target situation effectively. ‘Lacks’, on the other hand, refers to the gap between the learners’ existing proficiency and the target proficiency, whereas ‘wants’ is what the learners view their needs as being. The outline

of a target situation analysis framework to get the information on target needs is shown as below:

- i) Why is the language needed?
 - for study;
 - for work;
 - for training;
 - for a combination of these;
 - for some other purpose, e.g. status, examination, promotion.

- ii) How will the language be used?
 - medium: speaking, writing, reading etc.;
 - channel: e.g. telephone, face to face;
 - types of text or discourse: e.g. academic texts, lectures, informal conversations, technical manuals, catalogues.

- iii) What will the content areas be?
 - subjects: e.g. medicine, biology, architecture, shipping, commerce, engineering;
 - level: e.g. technician, craftsman, postgraduate, secondary school.

- iv) Who will the learner use the language with?
 - native speakers or non-native;
 - level of knowledge of receiver: e.g. expert, layman, student;
 - relationship: e.g. colleague, teacher, customer, superior, subordinate.

- v) Where will the language be used?
 - physical setting: e.g. office, lecture theatre, hotel, workshop, library;
 - human context: e.g. alone, meetings, demonstrations, on telephone;
 - linguistic context: e.g. in own country, abroad.

- vi) When will the language be used?
- concurrently with the ESP course or subsequently;
 - frequently, seldom, in small amounts, in large chunks.
- (pp. 59-60)

After dealing with the issues of ‘target situation needs,’ and considering ‘necessities’, ‘lacks’ and ‘wants’ as a journey to reach them, Hutchinson and Waters continue to address what they call as ‘learning needs’, or the route of the journey. The framework which they use to analyse learning needs is:

- i) Why are the learners taking the course?
- compulsory or optional;
 - apparent need or not;
 - Are status, money, promotion involved?
 - What do learners think they will achieve?
 - What is their attitude towards the ESP course? Do they want to improve their English or do they resent the time they have to spend on it?
- ii) How do the learners learn?
- What is their learning background?
 - What is their concept of teaching and learning?
 - What methodology will appeal to them?
 - What sort of techniques are likely to bore / alienate them?
- iii) What resources are available?
- number and professional competence of teachers;
 - attitude of teachers to ESP;
 - teachers’ knowledge of and attitude to the subject content;
 - materials;
 - aids;

- opportunities for out-of-class activities.
- iv) Who are the learners?
- age / sex / nationality;
 - What do they know already about English?
 - What subject knowledge do they have?
 - What are their interests?
 - What is their socio-cultural background?
 - What teaching styles are they used to?
 - What is their attitude to English or to the cultures of the English-speaking world?
- v) Where will the ESP course take place?
- are the surroundings pleasant, dull, noisy, cold etc?
- vi) When will the ESP course take place?
- time of day;
 - every day / once a week;
 - full-time / part-time;
 - concurrent with need or pre-need.

(pp. 62-63)

According to Hutchinson and Waters, language use and language learning are both essential in the analysis of target situation and learning needs, which they call a learning-centred approach to needs analysis. Their model seems to be an improvement of Munby's CNP as they further define learners' needs in two types: target needs and learning needs.

2.7.3.3 TSA and PSA - Robinson (1991).

In her needs analysis aiming to establish learners' needs at the end of a language course, Robinson (1991) also used the term Target Situation Analysis (TSA) which was

first introduced and discussed by Chambers (1980). She also used John Munby's Communication Needs Processor (CNP), for her TSA, especially on the part which is related to target-level performance, where the TSA complements it by highlighting the stage where the activity reaches a 'good enough' competence. TSA requires information related to two stages in the students' lives: the English language requirements during the stage where the students receive the training, and the stage where the students enter the job world. For example, for the first stage, what is required for students to achieve the learning objectives in a course is TSA, whereas for the second stage, TSA looks at what the students need to have to do well in their work.

Present Situation Analysis (PSA) is a complement to TSA. It "seeks to establish what the students are like at the start of their language course, investigating their strengths and weaknesses" (p. 9). In other words, an analysis that identifies students' problems can be classified as PSA. The basic sources of information can be the students themselves, the language-teaching institutions, and the 'user-institution' (e.g., students' workplace). Some issues with PSA and TSA are whether one should be carried out first before the other, or whether they should be carried out simultaneously. These issues notwithstanding, needs analysis can be regarded as a combination of both PSA and TSA. The next section will discuss criticisms of needs analysis, and how they are addressed by rights analysis, a critical model of needs analysis.

2.7.4 Critical needs analysis: Rights analysis - Benesch (2001a).

Looking at the models presented earlier, which have contributed to how needs analysis has been done until now, it appears that Munby's CNP has had a significant influence upon others especially in terms of identifying the target needs. Although changes and improvements have been made to other models of needs analysis, the concept of 'target needs' is likely to continue as a core element in needs analysis. Benesch (1996) mentions that by knowing students' target English situations and using this as the basis to inform ESP/EAP courses, teachers will be able to provide students with the specific language they need.

There is no doubt that needs analysis has been an important component and will remain relevant and significant in an ESP course, but despite its widespread use in the

world of ESP/EAP, it still sparks some issues and criticism that perhaps contribute to its development as well.

Basturkmen (2006) in her book *Ideas and Options in English for Specific Purposes* lists a number of issues and criticism of needs analysis. Some of them are:

- needs analysis may just serve the interest of an institution if the information is based on expectations set by the institutions themselves;
- needs analysis may not elicit the actual needs from the learners as they may not be a reliable source of information about their own needs;
- there may be a conflict between objective needs and subjective needs (e.g., engineering students may objectively need to write technical matters but want to read topics of general interest; thus, using technical texts may be demotivating);
- discrepancy between language needs and learning needs;
- learners lack awareness and metalanguage to describe their needs meaningfully;
- learners may not be able to identify language use in specific situations due to the unpredictability of the situations;
- the needs analysts face different perspectives of needs to consider in designing ESP courses;
- designing courses based on needs analysis may lead to language training rather than education. Instead of developing linguistic competence of the language, learners are trained to perform a restricted repertoire of the language;
- needs analysis claims to be a neutral enterprise. However, institutions use it to get others to conform to established communicative practices;
- theoretically, needs analysis is not neutral as different analysts may have different aims in conducting their needs analyses.

(pp. 19-20)

These issues and criticisms so far have not depreciated the value of needs analysis in ESP/EAP. In fact, they do not in any way suggest that needs analysis is no longer relevant especially in designing ESP/EAP courses. However, all the stakeholders involved should be sensitive to the needs of the course to “avoid repeating mistakes of the past and reinventing the wheel” (Long, 2005, p. 2). In other words, if it is discovered

that the learners are not learning what they are supposed to learn especially towards the end of the learning period, there might be a problem with how their needs are addressed in the curriculum. Despite all of this, the fact that most models in needs analysis are similar in nature calls for a need to tap into other potentials of needs analysis. In other words, there is a need for a critical perspective to scrutinise the dominant practice in EAP (Luke, 2004).

Benesch (1996, 1999, 2001a) has been critical of some concepts of needs analysis in the existing models. First, she claims that Robinson's (1991) model does not address the political and subjective nature of needs analysis, even though Robinson does acknowledge that needs analysis is influenced by "the ideological preconceptions of the analysts" (Robinson, p. 7, as cited in Benesch, 1996). Furthermore, she argues about the association of needs with target situation demands in needs analysis (Starfield, 2013). Benesch (2001a) claims that this type of needs analysis only aims at fulfilling target expectations without questioning them. Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) model, despite stressing the importance of a possible mismatch between institutional demands and learners' perceptions of their needs, does not formulate any notion that "target needs are subject to criticism or change (Benesch, 2001a, p. 43). She observes that the taxonomies of needs by ESP/EAP theorists such as 'what the user-institution or society at large regards as necessary' and 'what the learner needs to do to actually acquire the language' are seen as unproblematic and neutral. There is no mention why the items are in the list or why others are left out (Benesch, 1996). She believes that "taxonomies of needs not only hide their ideological basis but also disregard the unequal social positions of the different parties involved and the possible effects of such inequality on curriculum development" (Benesch, 1996, p. 724). In the existing models of needs analysis, all stakeholders are presented as being at the same level. This is something that requires attention especially when the stakeholders are at different levels of the hierarchy, which raises the issues of power. The issues of power need to be taken into consideration in designing needs analysis. Some of these are highlighted by Benesch (1996) in her questions,

Should students' needs be subordinated to institutional requirements, or should the institution give up some of its power? And how does one deal with cases in

which students are so assimilated into academic culture that they identify study skills as their needs? Should one accept and be guided by this congruence between students' conceptualization of needs and institutional requirements or instead be wary of it, suspecting the hegemonic influence of academic traditions? (Benesch, 1996, p. 724)

All in all, Benesch (2001a) sees needs analysis in ESP as merely descriptive; it does not address questions about unequal power in academia, sociopolitical issues and their effects on curriculum, and social issues affecting students' current academic lives such as funding for education and job security. This is related to the pragmatic approach to EAP, where the focus of instruction is for students to gain communicative competence without involving political goals and changing students' sociopolitical consciousness (Santos, 1992). Benesch (2001a) views this traditional assumption as the notion that EAP is neutral, which has developed due to demands by learners. On the other hand, she sees EAP as ideological because education itself is political and never neutral, as there are always people who get to make decisions on the content, pedagogy, students, classroom and assessment (Benesch, 2001b; Pennycook, 1989; Shor, 1992). Thus, she proposes a critical approach to EAP to address the limitations of traditional EAP, and consider the opportunities for learners' negotiation and resistance within and beyond the classroom (Starfield, 2013).

Hence, Benesch (2001a), advocating a critical stance in EAP, argues for a critical approach to target situations in needs analysis. She asserts, "the greatest strength of EAP is its responsiveness to students' reasons for studying English" (p. 51). She seeks to join EAP and critical pedagogy to go "beyond pragmatic instrumentalism and a limited notion of student success as fulfilling content class requirements" (Benesch, 2001a, p. 61). Benesch proposes the concept of critical needs analysis, which according to her, is a reaction to the pragmatic stance of ESP/EAP, that "changing existing forms is unrealistic whereas promoting them is practical" (Benesch, 1996, p. 736). Critical needs analysis sees institutions as a hierarchy where the people at the bottom level are entitled to more power; it looks for areas where "greater equality might be achieved" (Benesch, 1996, p. 736).

In her critical needs analysis, Benesch (2001a) is not in favour of the term 'needs' in needs analysis. She sees the term 'needs analysis' as "inadequate for a process fraught with ambiguity, struggle and contradiction" (Benesch, 2001a, p. 44). Therefore, she has replaced the term 'critical needs analysis' with the term 'rights analysis' to express how power relations are practised in educational decision-making. Benesch's notion of power in her rights analysis is guided by Foucault's concept of power. Foucault (1980) sees power as "always already there" (p. 141, as cited in Benesch, 1999, p. 315), and "is multiple and pervasive, not localized in the State apparatus" (p. 60, as cited in Benesch, 1999, p. 315). In other words, attention to details is important in analysing power. Elements of space (e.g., studying the architecture of a classroom) and time (e.g., studying how students' days are organised) are taken into consideration in Foucault's methods for analysing power (Benesch, 2001a).

Addressing the aspect of power in needs analysis is necessary to balance the descriptive nature of needs analysis with a critical approach to the target situation. Although addressing target needs to set the purpose of instruction has been the dominant worldview or ideology, juxtaposing needs analysis and rights analysis allows for a two-way strategy to address target needs; needs analysis is to discover and fulfill target goals, while rights analysis is for a "search of alternatives to strict adherence to those requirements" (Benesch, 2001a, p. 45).

2.7.4.1 Rights analysis.

Benesch (2001a) perceives the term 'needs' as underscoring power relations in academic settings with its psychological (e.g., students require what the institutions want) and biological (e.g., basic human needs like food and shelter) connotations. On the other hand, the term 'rights' in critical EAP highlights "life as contested, with various players exercising power for different ends" (Benesch, 2001a, p. 63). She asserts that rights analysis

recognizes the classroom as a site of struggle. It studies how power is exercised and resisted in an academic setting, aiming to reveal how struggles for power and control can be sources of democratic participation in life both in and outside the classroom. (Benesch, 1999, p. 315)

She adds that rights analysis focuses on power relations and sees EAP students as “potentially active participants rather than compliant subjects” (Benesch, 1999, p. 315).

Brown (2016) broadens the definitions by giving some examples. He says,

the analyses could additionally examine the power relationships between the ESP teaching institution and other entities (perhaps examining ways the EST program can effectively resist the insistence by the national ministry of education that the program focus on TOEFL preparation), or indeed, the power relationships in the target ESP community (perhaps studying how and why engineers with MS degrees feel they are treated poorly by scientists with PhD degrees). (p. 24)

In other words, students and other stakeholders in the institutional hierarchy should not be seen as acquiescent parties who only accept their circumscribed roles without being given the opportunities for interrogations to create democratic possibilities (Benesch, 2001a; Canagarajah, 2002). Benesch (2001a) has discussed power relations by referring to Foucault’s theory of power as a framework for studying power and resistance in EAP. She mentions that the hierarchical concept in EAP positions EAP teachers as lower-status members of the academic hierarchy, while students are regarded as novices who must surrender to the requirements of the target community. Therefore, the “relationships between teachers and students as well as those between EAP teachers and other members of the academy can be analyzed in terms of power” (p. 54). Foucault’s concepts of power challenge the traditional assumption that students are powerless and passive recipients who have to accommodate themselves to the requirements of the target communities. Nonetheless, power is not regarded in terms of the relationships between a party dominating its subordinates, but is viewed in terms of the relationships between power and resistance; “power and resistance coexist: there are no relations of power without resistances” (Foucault, 1980, p. 148, as cited in Benesch, 2001a, p. 54). In fact, Foucault places resistance as the counterpart to power. Rather than looking at humans as objects of control, they should be seen as actively engaged in the mechanisms of power. However, resistance does not “rule out human susceptibility to regulation, and even self-regulation, when restrictions have been internalized and no longer need to be externally enforced” (Benesch, 2001a, p. 55). In

other words, resistance in the event of power does not necessarily result in non-compliance.

In the context of needs analysis, analysing power can provide an alternative to the conceptions of the common role of EAP as a service provider to other disciplines, “whose job is to prepare students to accept their circumscribed roles as consumers of information and acquiescent workers” (Benesch, 2001a, p. 55). Additionally, in Foucault’s theory of power, studying power is not just about identifying the heads or administrators of an organisation. Instead, it should involve questioning how and why decisions are made. Furthermore, Benesch mentions that due to the hierarchical nature of an academic community, power can be analysed in the relationships between teachers and students, as well as between EAP teachers and other members of the community.

In summary, what sets rights analysis apart from traditional needs analysis is the focus on power relations in the model. In relation to needs analysis in the framework for this study, I used Robinson’s (1991) model to first elicit the student present needs and target needs (PSA and TSA), and applied Benesch’s (2001a) rights analysis as the lens to uncover underlying elements of power relations from the interview data. In other words, both pragmatic and critical approaches were used in this research. The pragmatic approach was intended to investigate whether the EAW course meets the student needs from different faculties, while the critical approach was to explore power relations between the stakeholders in the course, as a step to address issues of power in the hierarchical structure of my university.

The present study analysed student needs from the perspectives of the writing lecturers (EAW lecturers), faculty lecturers and students. Since writing lecturers were less likely to know their student needs pertaining to academic writing in their faculties, they could only see their students’ problems in EAW and set expectations of what the students would achieve from EAW. The analysis of students’ problems in EAW is PSA, and what students would achieve from the EAW course is TSA. How they thought EAW could fulfill students’ writing needs at their respective faculties is also regarded as TSA. On the other hand, for the faculty lecturers, their student needs would be what writing skills their students needed to have in their studies (PSA), and what they expected the students to be able to do in academic language performance (TSA).

Finally, the students' PSA would be the information on their problems, and TSA would be what they hoped to achieve from the EAW course. With regard to rights analysis, following Helmer (2013), rights analysis framework was used as the lens as I read the data to investigate power relations – there was no rights analysis instrument per se. By applying these two concepts of needs analysis, I hope to make my findings useful in that they do not just identify the student academic writing needs in IIUM, but also uncover the ideological nature of the EAW course.

2.7.5 Studies employing needs analysis.

Over the years, needs analysis has been conducted in numerous studies. It can be said that the studies have either adopted the pragmatic approach (e.g., only identified PSA or TSA) or the critical approach (e.g., addressed the political and subjective nature of needs analysis). Fifteen studies in the context of EAP have been selected for this review. The studies involved non-native speakers of English (NNS), or were done in the context of second language writing (L2 writing) or English as a Second Language (ESL). However, one study (i.e., Helmer, 2013) did not use the terms NNS, L2 writing, or any similar terms. The study was done in a college in the northeast U.S. Nevertheless, the majority of the students in her study were immigrants who had lived there for only three to five years. Thus, this study was also chosen because of the assumption that the context can be compared to the contexts of other studies which involved NNS or L2 writing.

This section discusses the studies by Casanave and Hubbard (1992), Huang (2010), Jenkins et al. (1993), Yildirim and Ilin (2009), and Zhu (2004), Sarudin, Zubairi and Ali (2009), Eslami (2010), Akyel and Ozek (2010), Liu, Chang, Yang and Sun (2011), Mehrdad (2012) and Abiri (2013), which reflect the pragmatic approach, and the ones by Dehnad, Bagherzadeh, Bigdeli, Hatami and Hosseini (2010), Helmer (2013), Noori (2015) and Khany and Tarlani-Aliabadi (2016), which advocate the critical approach to needs analysis.

2.7.5.1 Studies employing the pragmatic approach.

This discussion consists of two parts. The first part will discuss the studies that employed needs analysis for various purposes. On the other hand, the second part comprises the studies that only focused on writing needs. The separation is to facilitate comparisons since the present study also investigated academic writing needs.

Sarudin et al. (2009) conducted a study within the framework of pragmatic needs analysis to investigate the English language problems in terms of speaking and writing skills of engineering students at a public university in Malaysia. It was done as part of a larger curriculum review to redesign English language courses to meet the needs of the stakeholders. Prior to their study, the Malaysian Ministry of Higher Education highlighted the need for a comprehensive review of ESP courses in Malaysian universities due to a decline in the standard of English among Malaysian students and graduates.

The research questions of the study were: “1. What are the problems of engineering students in writing and speaking?; 2. What are the problems of engineering students in writing and speaking from the lecturers’ point of view?; and 3. Is there a difference between the perceptions of students and lecturers?” (p. 2). The study employed survey questionnaires to elicit the data. The items in the questionnaires were based on sub-skills in writing and speaking. The questionnaires were distributed to students and English language lecturers at a technical university, where 612 students and 36 lecturers responded to the survey.

In summary, both students and English language lecturers generally agreed that students had problems in writing and speaking, specifically in vocabulary and grammar. Additionally, students also had problems in using varied expressions and fluency in speaking. The study recommended that the language course should include grammar to be taught in context. Students should also be given more opportunities to be involved in activities that promote rich vocabulary. Finally, it was also recommended that the curriculum review should include the opinions of the stakeholders, especially the students and the course instructors.

The need analysis done in this study employed the pragmatic approach, as it describes the learners’ needs in terms of their present situation analysis (PSA) and target

situation analysis (TSA). It does not raise any possible issue with the institutional hierarchy or power relations in analysing the student present needs. Identifying students' speaking and writing problems is important to establish what the students need for their language course (Robinson, 1991). Even so, this study only used one instrument, which is the questionnaire. The findings could have been improved if more than one data collection method was used to identify the students' problems. Even though the study acknowledges the need to include various stakeholders in the curriculum review, not addressing questions about power in academia, sociopolitical issues and their effects on curriculum, and social issues affecting students' academic lives gives a limited notion of the students' success (Benesch, 2001a).

Another needs analysis was conducted by Eslami (2010) to gauge students' and instructors' perceptions of their language learning needs and to analyse the perception of EAP learners from different related academic backgrounds. She introduced the context of her study by describing EAP practice in Iran, which is mainly "ad hoc, lacking in course design, systematic needs analysis, teacher education, proper evaluation and systematic research on the effectiveness of these programs" (p. 4). The research questions of her study were: "1. What are the EAP instructors' perceptions of the importance of problematic areas in EAP classes?; 2. What are the EAP students' perceptions of the importance of problematic areas in EAP class?; 3. Are there any significant differences between the learners' perceptions in different academic fields?; and 4. Are there any significant differences between the learners' perceptions and their instructors?" (p. 3). She used only questionnaires as the instrument. Using nonprobability sample designs or quota sampling, she administered the questionnaires to 693 undergraduate students. A modified version of the questionnaire was also administered to EAP instructors (number not mentioned).

The findings revealed that students in humanities and engineering perceived having a low level of language proficiency as a significant problem compared to students in medicine. The majority of humanities and engineering students believed that they needed to increase their general proficiency in English. They perceived limited vocabulary, slow reading speed, poor listening, speaking, writing and reading comprehension, boring classes, access to the Internet, and instructors' lack of emphasis

on the use of the Internet as their main problems. The study also discovered that students preferred a learner-centred class and wanted more involvement in class activities. In contrast, there was a difference between the instructors' perceptions and the students' perceptions. The instructors perceived all the problems as more important than how the students perceived them. The only thing that the instructors did not think as highly important was the nature of the teacher-centred class. It was concluded that it was important to know the exact needs of students in different academic fields so that the instructors could prepare them effectively for the tasks and expectations that they had. In her conclusion, Eslami (2010) acknowledged Benesch's (1996) critical needs analysis, as she believed that learners in Iran should be given more power and their voices should be heard to effect changes.

Eslami's (2010) needs analysis is similar to Sarudin et al.'s (2009) in terms of methodology. Both studies employed only questionnaires and used students and lecturers as their samples. However, Eslami's study only identified the students' present needs/present situation analysis (PSA), compared to Sarudin et al.'s study that identified the present needs/present situation analysis (PSA) and target needs/target situation analysis (TSA). Nevertheless, Eslami compared students' disciplines when looking at the students' problems. Even though she was aware of Benesch's (1996) rights analysis, her needs analysis was pragmatic in nature since she did not go beyond describing the present needs to address the issue of power relations in the study context. On the other hand, the fact that she acknowledges Benesch's rights analysis shows that the critical approach can be useful in addition to a needs analysis to further understand what the students need.

Akyel and Ozek (2010) conducted a needs analysis while planning improvements to the ELT curriculum of the preparatory school of an English medium university in Istanbul, Turkey. Despite not mentioning ESP or EAP, their needs analysis is regarded as a study within the scope of general EAP (Brown, 2016). It aimed at getting a better understanding of the students' academic language needs. The study triangulated the use of semi-structured interviews with questionnaires to elicit information on the importance and effective use of learning strategies related to four language skills in ESL/EFL. The questionnaires were administered to 2328 students and

125 lecturers from different departments. For the interviews, 14 university professors and nine students were randomly selected as participants. They carried out both procedures at the same time. With regard to the four language skills, their findings indicated that reading and listening were the skills deemed most important for academic achievement by university instructors, in contrast to students' choice of speaking and listening. This shows a discrepancy between the instructors and the students' perceptions of the student needs. In addition, even though most of the instructors and the students agreed with the importance of student initiation in the activities and frequent participation in the lessons, some students indicated that most of the lessons were teacher-centred. In relation to learning strategies, it was revealed that students needed encouragement to use effective language learning strategies. One of the highlighted findings is that there was no emphasis on speaking skills by the preparatory school, resulting in great difficulties among students especially in the first two years of their studies. Some suggestions were as follows: (1) lessons should integrate language skills and strategies identified in the study; (2) professional development activities should be provided for instructors; (3) a portfolio system can be established to include an oral expression component, which is not assessed in the proficiency examination; and (4) students should be allowed to write ideas and outlines during the writing examination.

The needs analysis done by Akyel and Ozek (2010) can also be regarded as employing the pragmatic approach. The main difference between their needs analysis from the ones by Sarudin et al. (2009) and Eslami (2010) is that their study conducted a target situation analysis (TSA) only. Notwithstanding, their methods involved triangulation of semi-structured interviews with questionnaires, which added validity to the findings (Creswell, 2014). Their needs analysis can be regarded as descriptive since TSA only identifies what students should be able to do at the end of a course (Brown, 2016). It only fulfills target expectations without questioning them (Benesch, 2001a). Thus, similar to Sarudin et al.'s and Eslami's, it can be regarded as a pragmatic needs analysis instead of a critical one.

Using Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) model which uses the terms 'necessities', 'wants' and 'lacks' to define needs, Liu et al. (2011) employed them in their

questionnaire to investigate EFL college students' needs in English for General Purposes (EGP) and English for Specific/Academic Purposes (ESP/EAP) at six universities in Taiwan. They based their study on the findings from previous analyses of learners' needs in language class. Their research questions were: "1. What reasons were given by the EFL students for their enrollment in EGP and ESP/EAP courses?; 2. What particular needs (i.e., necessities, wants, and lacks) did the EFL students want the courses to fill?; and 3. How are the EGP and ESP/EAP courses contrasted, as shown in the student responses?" (p. 273). The study used questionnaires, which were administered to 972 participants who were non-English major EFL students. The findings revealed differences in perceptions of 'necessities', 'wants' and 'lacks' in different language skills among the students, and also in their perceptions of needs as compared to the courses they took. For the EGP course, the four types of language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) were not perceived as equally necessary, desirable and needed by the students. There were also discrepancies in some paired language skills. For example, they perceived that they lacked listening skills more than reading skills, but they considered them less necessary to master compared to reading skills. Similarly, for the ESP/EAP course, the four types of language skills were not perceived as equally necessary, desirable and needed by the students, and some discrepancies were also recorded. For instance, speaking, despite being perceived as a weaker skill, was rated as less necessary to master compared to reading. It was concluded that the students had different perceptions of necessities, wants, and lacks "not only in terms of the different language skills taught within, but also across, EGP or ESP/EAP courses" (p. 277). One limitation highlighted from the study is the lack of triangulation in the methods to get a more in-depth understanding of learner needs.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) refer to 'necessities', 'lacks' and 'wants' as 'target needs'. Therefore, like Akyel and Ozek (2010), this study uses a pragmatic approach in its needs analysis as it only identifies students' target needs/target situation analysis (TSA) without questioning them or looking at power relations. Nonetheless, Liu et al. (2011) only used questionnaires as its instrument, and students as the sample. What they discovered here is limited to what the students shared in their responses to the questionnaires; they could have benefited more from their study if the needs analysis

applied triangulation of methods and involved other stakeholders such as the lecturers. As stated by Davis (1995), Greene and McClintock (1985), Serafini et al. (2015) and Yin (2014), triangulation has been acknowledged as a useful way of ensuring research credibility, reliability and validity.

In a similar study, Mehrdad (2012) investigated students' conceptions of good learning of English at a university in Iran. He conducted a needs analysis which reflects two elements of Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) model – 'wants' and 'lacks'. The study only used questionnaires as its instrument. The participants were 52 students from the departments of Arts, Engineering, Humanities, Science and others. The students were from different levels of studies – first year to senior level. During the study, the students were taking a general English course as a pre-requisite to their ESP courses. Although this was a general English course, Mehrdad asserted that according to Hutchinson and Waters, there is no difference between conducting a needs analysis for a general English course and an ESP course. The findings revealed that students showed a high preference for reading and grammar. One interesting finding was that students also showed a preference for a teacher-centred classroom. Mehrdad concluded that the findings that showed students' specific preferences (e.g., pronunciation, grammar and a teacher-centred classroom) suggested that there was a need to improve the course syllabus. Overall, most students expressed their wish to improve their reading and writing skills, as well as vocabulary and grammar. On the other hand, he claimed that the existing language course was not meeting their needs. Therefore, the need to revise the content and syllabus was proposed.

Liu et al.'s (2011) and Mehrdad's (2012) studies were similar because they both specifically referred to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) as the model for the needs analysis. In addition, they also used only questionnaires for data collection, and students for their respondents. Generally, both of them applied the pragmatic approach in their studies as they just investigated the students' target needs/target situation analysis (TSA). Although Mehrdad's study was different since he mentioned some departments indicating students' disciplines in his study, he did not compare the student needs according to their departments. The findings would have been improved if he had done so, as Eslami (2010) highlighted the importance of knowing the exact needs of students

in different academic disciplines so that their expectations can be matched effectively with the tasks in their course.

Finally, the study by Abiri (2013) employed needs analysis to identify psychology students' needs in an ESP course in five universities in Iran. The research questions of the study were: "1. What are the specific English language needs of Iranian psychology students?; 2. What types of content and class activities are appropriate for psychology students?; and 3. What language sub-skills do psychology students need to develop?" (p. 822). This study triangulated the methods of using questionnaires, informal discussions with learners, interviews with teachers and observation of students. It involved 278 students who were randomly selected from five universities. The teachers who participated in the interviews were three language teachers and eight subject specific teachers. The results of the study indicated that the majority of the students considered reading comprehension as very important, with reading a text as the most significant needed sub-skill. Writing was ranked as the second most important skill. The students and the instructors also shared a similar view that the students lacked English language proficiency to cope with the huge amount of reading they had to do in their courses. Both students and instructors also perceived the students as lacking the speaking skills for group discussions and presentations. In addition, most respondents claimed students lacked the ability to use grammatical language even after they passed their language course. It was suggested that the English course should provide students with authentic academic language experiences.

Abiri (2013) employed the pragmatic approach in his needs analysis. He looked at student target needs/target situation analysis (TSA). The findings described the language skills that the students needed in order to excel in their course. However, compared to the needs analyses in the studies discussed before, this study involved more methods and stakeholders. It not only used students and teachers to elicit the student needs, but also triangulated the methods by using questionnaires, informal discussions with learners, interviews with teachers and observation of students. Therefore, even though the needs analysis can be considered as descriptive and pragmatic as it does not address questions about power relations (Benesch, 2001a), the

findings from triangulation of data can be regarded as credible, reliable and valid (Davis, 1995; Greene and McClintock, 1985; Serafini et al., 2015; Yin, 2014).

In conclusion, all the studies reviewed mostly aimed at reviewing existing courses at their institutions and/or to understand the needs of the students, in particular, and other stakeholders, in general. All of them employed the pragmatic approach to needs analysis, although there are some differences in the ways of how they were carried out. First, in terms of the participants, Abiri (2013), Akyel and Ozek (2010), Eslami (2010), and Sarudin et al. (2009) involved students and lecturers as participants in their studies, compared to Liu et al. (2011) and Mehrdad (2012) who only used students. Secondly, all studies used questionnaires, except for Akyel and Ozek, and Abiri who added interviews as a way to elicit the data. Abiri also triangulated the findings from questionnaires and interviews with the findings from informal discussions with learners, and observations of students. Additionally, only Eslami looked at the students' disciplines in analysing the student needs. Finally, the only thing that all studies have in common is that all of them investigated the present needs/present situation analysis (PSA) or target needs/target situation analysis (TSA) of their participants. As discussed earlier, target needs are the core element in needs analysis. In fact, language skills have been the main focus of all target needs in all of the studies. None of them addressed other issues such as power relations directly, except for Eslami (2010) who indirectly touched on this in her conclusion that the Iranian learners' voices should be heard by the institutions. All of the needs analyses in the studies are descriptive in nature; they only identified lists of needs (Benesch, 1996). The findings were for the students to accommodate themselves to the demands of academic assignments and for the institutions to provide targeted instruction to fulfill local academic demands (Benesch, 2001a; Hyland, 2006). Hence, the approaches used in the needs analysis in all the studies are considered pragmatic, not critical.

The second part of this discussion will look at studies that specifically investigated writing needs. Casanave and Hubbard (1992) have conducted a survey to examine writing needs and problems of first-year doctoral students who were native and non-native speakers of English (NS and NNS). Questionnaires were distributed to faculty in humanities, social sciences, and science and technology departments at

Stanford University. They wanted to know about the kind of writing the faculty members require of their students, the criteria they use to evaluate students' writing, and the students' writing problems. Overall, the results from 85 questionnaires suggested that writing plays an important role. All faculty members believed that writing skills became more and more important as students progressed through a graduate program. In terms of the student needs, it is interesting to highlight that one of the findings revealed that all faculty perceived global features of writing like quality of content and development of ideas as more important than local features such as grammatical accuracy and spelling. On the other hand, in terms of their students' writing problems, NNS were reported to have more problems than NS, which is not surprising. The problems were mainly related to punctuation/spelling, grammatical accuracy and appropriateness and vocabulary, but not so much at the discourse level.

This study employed the pragmatic approach because it did not investigate power relations among the faculty members or look into any socio-political issues in the faculty. It only looked at what the faculty required of the students, which can be compared with the target needs/target situation analysis (TSA), and the students' writing problems, hence the present needs/present situation analysis (PSA).

The study by Jenkins et al. (1993) also studied writing needs from the faculty perspectives. Jenkins et al. carried out a study to investigate writing practices in graduate engineering programmes and faculty attitudes about writing needs and the importance of writing skills in the graduate programme and beyond. This can be related to target situation analysis (TSA), which reflected the pragmatic approach in needs analysis. The study was driven by some evidence that the engineering faculty was not happy with their graduate students' literacy. The study used questionnaires, which were sent to the engineering faculty at Cornell, Drexel, Ohio University, Ohio State, Stanford University and the University of Cincinnati. One of the main reasons why the schools were chosen was due to the fact that they had a big number of students who were NNS. They mailed 600 questionnaires and received 188 back, but only 176 were used for analysis. The results indicated that firstly, the engineering faculty believed that writing was more important for students to succeed after graduation than in the graduate programme. In addition, there was a discrepancy in the standards used to evaluate the

writing of native and non-native students between the faculty. Finally, there was an indication that there was a problem in terms of terminology in a dialogue between ESP and engineering faculty, since ESP practitioners did not have the expertise in the technical fields and the engineering faculty lack expertise in discourse analysis. They further discussed this in the pedagogical implications section. They stated, “the engineering faculty often seem to regard ESL faculty as ‘relatively untrained people’ who can correct syntax errors, but have little else to offer” (p. 63). In relation to this, they believed that there should be cooperation between the ESL and the engineering faculty.

Similarly, the study by Zhu (2004) explored faculty views on academic writing. She conducted her study on academic writing and writing instruction at a public research university in the Southeast of the United States. Interviews were done with 10 business and engineering professors. Both faculties placed a great emphasis on the importance of writing. Nevertheless, the emphasis on writing in the academic curriculum differed, which reflected differences in disciplinary cultures. The business faculty recognised the importance of writing at the policy level and worked towards integrating writing into their curriculum; on the other hand, the engineering faculty put limited efforts into doing so. In addition, both faculties generally had two views on academic writing and writing instruction. The first view represents the autonomous view of literacy, which holds that in academic writing, generalisable writing skills can be transferred across contexts and that writing instruction can be best delivered by writing or language instructors. However, the second view holds that general writing skills are the basis for the development of discipline-specific processes, but academic writing involves specific disciplinary thought and communication processes. In terms of writing instruction, they viewed content and writing instructors as sharing the same role in developing academic writing skills of the students. Moreover, in terms of the nature of academic literacy and faculty role in academic writing instruction, the findings suggested that there is a need to teach discipline-specific writing in the EAP context. Zhu’s study can also be regarded as a pragmatic needs analysis. It can be said that both faculties indicated their needs in terms of the target needs/target needs analysis (TSA).

Overall, the needs analyses in the three studies above can be considered as employing the pragmatic approach, as their findings can be classified as either the target situation needs/target situation analysis (TSA) (Casanave & Hubbard, 1992; Jenkins et al., 1993; Zhu, 2004) or the present situation needs/present situation analysis (PSA) (Casanave & Hubbard, 1992). In terms of the findings, the faculties from all three studies above acknowledge the importance of writing, but the emphasis is different. In Casanave and Hubbard's (1992) study, the faculty viewed writing as important as students progressed through a graduate program, while in Jenkins et al.'s study (1993), they placed the importance on writing for students to succeed after graduation. The faculties in Zhu's study (2004) differed in how they emphasised writing in their course; the business faculty viewed writing as important to be integrated into their curriculum, while the engineering faculty put limited efforts into doing so. In terms of methodology, both Casanave and Hubbard, and Jenkins et al. used only questionnaires to obtain their data, while Zhu used interviews. The fact that all studies only used one data collection method can be seen as a weakness in their studies. Even though all of the findings may be regarded as valid or trustworthy, applying multiple methods to triangulate the data may strengthen the validity of the findings (Greene, Caracelli & Graham, 1989).

On the other hand, Huang's (2010) and Yildirim and Ilin's (2009) studies differ from the ones by Casanave and Hubbard (1992), Jenkins et al. (1993) and Zhu (2004), as they investigated academic writing needs from the perspectives of two groups of stakeholders – writing instructors and students. The study by Huang assessed how students of English as an additional language and instructors perceived language learning needs for successful completion of their course, which can be related to the target needs/target situation analysis (TSA), and examined the students' competency in the required skills, which reflects the present needs/present situation analysis (PSA). It was done at a university in British Columbia, Canada, in which 432 students and 93 instructors responded to questionnaires aimed at getting information for the initial development of EAP programs. Out of 432 students, 337 were undergraduate and 95 were postgraduate students.

The findings revealed that the skill items identified as 'very important' overlapped between graduate students and graduate instructors, and also between

undergraduate students and undergraduate instructors, suggesting that the students were clear about the language skills deemed important by their instructors. On the other hand, there was a huge difference between the students' self-assessments and instructors' assessments of their students' skill status. Several implications from this study were discussed. First, since the results revealed that students need help with their writing, further studies need to be done to probe their needs. Second, the skills that the students identified as important may not be the same as the ones that they perceived as needing help with. Finally, there are three things that need to be considered when designing instructional and pedagogical materials: (1) writing instruction should include skill items identified as important by the students; (2) support services should continue to focus on writing at different levels as most students revealed that they need support at the discourse (e.g., organisation and development of ideas) and local (e.g., grammar, phrasing, effective sentence structure, spelling and punctuation) levels of writing; and (3) both graduate students and instructors identified content-related writing problems such as using relevant support for a position, and disciplinary writing involving major research papers, theses and journal articles as important.

Yildirim and Ilin (2009) have examined tutors' and students' conceptions of a good research paper and whether there was any difference between the two groups. The study was conducted in the department of English Language Teaching in a Turkish university. First, 31 undergraduate students and five tutors were asked to write down individual constructs of what a good research paper should consist of (TSA). Then, they were interviewed to understand what each construct meant. The content analysis of the students' and tutors' constructs showed that mechanics of research and writing are important to produce a good research paper. In addition, most students also believed that having the skills to conduct research is also important to be a good writer. In terms of writing problems, the tutors pointed out that understanding and applying the concept of research are two main problems faced by the students (PSA). However, even though the students also perceived these problems to a certain extent, they were more concerned about the feasibility of doing research. It can be said that generally, there is a match between the students' and tutors' perceptions of a good research paper, but they had different perceptions of the problems.

Yildirim and Ilin's (2009) and Huang's (2010) studies can also be considered as employing the pragmatic approach in their needs analysis. This is because their studies only conducted TSA and PSA, without examining any issues pertaining to power relations or elements that a critical needs analysis would look at. With regard to their findings, it can be said that Yildirim and Ilin's (2009) findings are similar to Huang's (2010). Both studies indicate that generally, students and writing instructors share a lot of similar views when it comes to writing needs. They find that both students and writing instructors perceived the same types of writing skills as important. Nevertheless, both studies also reveal some differences in students' and instructors' perceptions. Huang found that students and instructors differed greatly in their assessment of the students' skill status, while Yildirim and Ilin found that although the students and their instructors had the same perceptions of the students' writing problems, the students were more concerned about conducting their research. On a different note, even though both studies are similar as they involved two groups of stakeholders in the writing course, they used different methods; Huang used questionnaires, which is similar to Casanave and Hubbard (1992) and Jenkins et al. (1993), while Yildirim and Ilin used interviews and content analysis to elicit the data. Yildirim and Ilin's use of two methods allows them to triangulate more than one type of data to answer their research questions, and adds credibility, reliability and validity to their research (Davis, 1995; Greene & McClintock, 1985; Serafini, Lake & Long, 2015; Yin, 2014).

Additionally, it is interesting to note that Casanave and Hubbard (1992) suggest that the quality of content and development of ideas is more important than local features such as grammatical accuracy and spelling, which is in contrast to Huang (2010) who highlights the importance of both. Casanave and Hubbard only get the faculty members' perspectives to elicit their students' writing needs and problems in their study while Huang, on the other hand, gets his information from two sources – students and instructors. Although this cannot be used as a reason to justify the difference, involving more than one stakeholder to study writing needs and problems may contribute to getting a better picture of the situation being studied. In case studies, Yin (2014) mentions that using many sources of evidence contributes to higher quality than those that only used single source of information. Finally, Zhu's (2004) findings

that the faculty viewed content and writing instructors as sharing the same role in developing students' academic writing skills is similar to Jenkins et al. (1993), who also found that the faculty was receptive to the idea of collaboration between language and faculty lecturers. On the other hand, there are no detailed explanations of how the two parties can collaborate and have the same role in teaching academic writing.

In summary, the studies above show that academic writing was important among the students (Casanave & Hubbard, 1992; Jenkins et al., 1993; Zhu, 2004) and writing instructors and students shared similar and different views about student writing needs (Yildirim & Ilin, 2009; Huang, 2010). On the other hand, some of the studies could have yielded better results if more than one method had been used and more than one stakeholder had been involved. In addition, more detailed explanations of the pedagogical implications could have also helped EAP practitioners, for example in terms of the collaboration between the faculty and the writing instructors.

2.7.5.2 Studies employing the critical approach.

Dehnad et al. (2010) carried out a needs analysis using the critical approach as part of an attempt to revise the syllabi of ESP postgraduate courses in the Ministry of Health in Iran. Before the study, they discovered from the documents in the ministry that no formal research had been conducted on needs analysis for postgraduate courses. On the other hand, it was the heads of educational departments who had determined the educational needs, and this was done without involving the instructors and the students. Thus, they conducted the study to make suggestions for changes in the course. They referred to Benesch (1996) and Pennycook (1989) who stated that the critical approach to needs analysis is both descriptive and transformative, which means that the findings will provide information on student needs as well as suggestions for changes in the content, materials and teaching methods.

The study was done at the Faculty of Management and Medical Information. The instruments used were questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. All 56 postgraduate students at the faculty were asked to answer the questionnaires, whereas interviews were done with the heads of departments, graduate students and a high-ranking administrator at the Ministry of Health. The findings of the study indicated

some similarities and differences between students' needs and the needs of other stakeholders such as teachers and administrators at the institution. The students and ESP teachers identified writing as the most important skill for the postgraduate students. In contrast, the heads of departments chose reading as the most important skill. Policy makers at the Ministry of Health, however, differed in their choice depending on the disciplines. It was concluded that the differences between the students' perceptions of their needs and the instructions that they received could have been the cause of the low quality learning and their lack of motivation.

In my opinion, even though Dehnad et al. (2010) claimed that their study employed the critical approach to needs analysis, what they reported in their findings only indicated the target needs/target situation analysis (TSA). They labelled their findings as 'descriptions of needs', which were further divided into the stakeholders' descriptions of student needs in terms of language skills, without any discussion on issues of power relations or any elements in the critical needs analysis. Therefore, I believe that this study may have employed the critical approach to needs analysis only in theory, but not in practice. They may have identified the context for the critical approach from how decision making was done at the higher level of the hierarchy, which suggests the political aspect of education. On the other hand, the needs analysis used multiple sources of data and involved various stakeholders, which adds validity and credibility to the findings. They used questionnaires and semi-structured interviews, and did not only involve students and teachers, but also heads of departments and an administrator at the Ministry of Health.

In another study, using needs analysis and Benesch's rights analysis, Helmer (2013) used a critical EAP (CEAP) framework to assess an EAP writing programme at a college in the northeast U.S. The aims of the study were to: re-evaluate the curriculum and achievements of the EAP programme using a CEAP framework; find out students' perceptions of their learning experiences and how they can be used to evaluate the programme; explore insights of writing instructors, EAP faculty and students; investigate how the institutional and/or administrative structures impact the curriculum; and restructure the EAP programme and redesign the curriculum. She obtained the data from classroom observations, semi-structured focus-group interviews (eight EAP

writing tutors), questionnaires (121 students and six EAP professors) and student-writing portfolios. She did not create rights analysis instruments per se for the study. However, when analysing the data, she discovered that the rights analysis framework was suitable for her to understand the needs of the programme. Using this approach, she discovered that restructuring the EAP programme's organisational hierarchy should have been prioritised over meeting student learning 'gaps' or 'deficiencies', as her findings indicated that students' 'gaps' were not necessarily caused by the students' 'deficiencies', but lack of programme cohesion, consistency and oversight – suggesting programme neglect.

First, although she discovered that students from the lower levels acknowledged that learning with their peers and getting support from their professors were helpful in acquiring academic English, students in the highest level viewed learning the writing skills (e.g., practice exams, grammar) as more important for them, as they were under pressure to pass the university writing exam. This indicated that, apart from providing a classroom environment with professor and peer support, the students' needs of passing the exam should have also been considered in redesigning the EAP curriculum. On the other hand, she also discovered that, although the EAP programme was already more than ten years old, there was a lack of coherence between the learning objectives, text types and standardised assignments. Additionally, there was also a lack of cohesion between EAP professors and writing tutors in terms of their teaching practice. These showed that the EAP programme's hierarchical structure required re-evaluation to promote better communication and course cohesion. Helmer claimed that the use of CEAP framework in her study (rights analysis) enabled her to address the root concerns in re-evaluating the EAP writing programme. She then proposed strategic collaborations between the EAP programme and the college's First Year Experience, a programme that organised learning communities and first-year seminars.

In contrast to Dehnad et al. (2010), Helmer (2013) has conducted a thorough needs analysis (with triangulation of multiple methods), which was not only descriptive, but also used a critical lens to understand the findings. The fact that she discovered that the EAP programme's hierarchical structure lacked communication and cohesion may suggest elements of power which had been exercised by the stakeholders at the college.

I find it interesting that she prioritised addressing issues in the programme's organisational hierarchy instead of student needs, as this is something that is not usually done in a traditional needs analysis. This also matches what Benesch (2001a) describes as the difference between needs analysis and rights analysis – “needs analysis to identify requirements and rights analysis to discover possible areas of change” (p. 61). This is something that other EAP practitioners can emulate when conducting a needs analysis.

Like Helmer (2013), Noori and Mazdayasna (2015) applied critical or rights analysis alongside the descriptive needs analysis in their study. Noori and Mazdayasna stated that, although needs analyses literature is abundant, critical needs analysis or rights analysis is not getting much attention in EAP. They aimed to investigate power and authority in the Iranian EAP institutional contexts and look for possibilities of programme reform, student engagement and meeting stakeholders' needs. The study took place at the English Language and Literature departments of three universities in Iran. The research questions were: “1. How is the unequal structure implicitly exercised in the EAP Iranian situation through different institutional formats?; 2. How do the Iranian EAP students resist and challenge the implicit academic inequities?; 3. What are the suggestions for balancing the unequal structures in the academic context?” (p. 48). They observed ten classes and interviewed students and lecturers. From their observations, they discovered that the classroom seating positions limited the chances for the students to face each other, causing student discussions to be difficult. Most classes were teacher-fronted and there was hardly any discussion between the teachers and the students. The majority of the students took a passive role in the class, even though a small number of classes did have student presentations.

Furthermore, the data from the interviews revealed that most students were not satisfied with the pre-academic EFL instruction, as they claimed that it was not sufficient for them for further academic success. At pre-academic levels, they were also not well informed about prospective academic majors. Moreover, they also complained about the large class size and a wide variety of English proficiencies in the class, making the low proficient students feel inferior when speaking English. Additionally, many students reported that the audiovisual facilities were underutilised. The

instructional format, which was lecture-based, was also highlighted by many students as a problem for them to stay focused during lectures. Many also expressed their dissatisfaction over the large amount of materials to be memorised. Most of the students hoped for the syllabus to be taught by content specialists in the future so that there is a better control of what to learn. This also linked to another complaint about the number of content specialists, which they regarded as insufficient. Finally, they were also concerned about their future job prospects. The study also revealed long-standing unequal relations and issues with authority in EAP programmes in the Iranian context. The content specialists had instilled “a sense of professorial authority and hierarchical status in the students, making them accept that the instructor is the best source of knowledge from whom they can learn best” (p. 51). In the discussion, Noori and Mazdayasna (2015) proposed a need to reform the hierarchical structure at the academic institutions in Iran to effectively address the student needs, as there was evidence of inequities and manifestation of power and control over the students by lecturers. Most students were reluctant to challenge their lecturers and preferred to keep their questions to themselves, except for some who expressed their dissatisfaction.

In comparison to Helmer (2013) who used a critical lens only when analysing her data, Noori and Mazdayasna (2015) reflected a critical approach in their needs analysis in their research questions. With their aim to investigate power and authority in the Iranian EAP institutional contexts, they regarded the classroom as a site of struggle and viewed the students as active participants rather than compliant subjects (Benesch, 1999). In my opinion, what they have conducted is a full rights analysis that addresses the questions of students’ subordination to institutional requirements (Benesch, 1996).

Another study by Khany and Tarlani-Aliabadi (2016) was also done in the Iranian context. While acknowledging a number of studies investigating foreign language learning needs of Iranian EAP students, Khany and Tarlani-Aliabadi claimed that there was hardly any research that studied whether students’ and teachers’ feedback had been used for textbook selection, teaching methods, assessment and classroom participation patterns. Thus, they wanted to know to what extent students’ and teachers’ suggestions and feedback informed the Iranian EAP curriculum. Their study was informed by the critical EAP theory. First, a survey involving two groups of participants

was carried out. The first group comprised students who had passed at least one EAP course; 200 responses were analysed. The second group consisted of 50 language teachers. Secondly, 18 students from the first group and 10 teachers from the second group were interviewed. The findings revealed that there was little or no interactions among students, teachers and department officials regarding curriculum development and classroom practices. Khany and Tarlani-Aliabadi stated that “there is currently an unbalanced relationship between students, teachers and curriculum developers in that students are seen as acquiescent recipients who are to enact rigorously imposed requirements” (p. 83). Students were seen as passive and powerless with regard to curricular and pedagogical decision-making. Guided by critical EAP, they suggested some ways to improve the EAP course. Other than subsequent needs analysis, they suggested that students, teachers and those involved in designing the curriculum should consult one another in making decisions related to pedagogy. Students should also be empowered through opportunities to ask questions and exercise power.

What Khany and Tarlani-Aliabadi (2016) have done in their study demonstrates another example of the critical approach in needs analysis. Their study addresses what Benesch (2001a) explains about the concept of dialogue in critical needs analysis,

Yet, because needs analysis in EAP is not critical, it is usually little more than an accounting of academic requirements; and, because the instruction is not dialogic, the traditional EAP teacher is mainly a conduit for efficient inculcation of those requirements rather than an activist who could invite students to question them. (p. 51)

Khany and Tarlani-Aliabadi’s study highlighted the importance of dialogue in a critical EAP course by identifying the areas where students and teachers could consult one another to enhance learning.

In conclusion, these studies have offered an alternative to the traditional or pragmatic approach to needs analysis. Even though the one by Dehnad et al. (2010) may be argued to not employ the critical approach, the rest of the studies have shown different ways how critical needs analysis can be conducted. Helmer (2013) shows how she used rights analysis as a lens to interpret her findings, while Noori and Mazdayasna (2015) and Khany and Tarlani-Aliabadi (2016) employed rights analysis to investigate

power relations between students and teachers in an EAP course. In terms of methodology, all studies used more than one method, which adds to the validity and reliability of their findings (Davis, 1995; Greene and McClintock, 1985; Serafini et al., 2015). Dehnad et al. and Khany and Tarlani-Aliabadi employed questionnaires and interviews, while Noori and Mazdayasna conducted observations and interviews. Helmer used multiple methods in her study, where she collected her data from classroom observations, semi-structured focus-group interviews, questionnaires and student-writing portfolios.

2.8 Aim of the Research

This research investigates academic writing with the aim to understand academic writing in the context of student academic writing needs and the EAW course in IIUM.

2.9 Research Questions

Three research questions have been developed for the research:

1. What are the EAW lecturers', the faculty lecturers', and students' perceptions of academic writing needs?
2. What are the EAW lecturers', the EAW/ENGIN students' and the EAW/HS students' perceptions of the EAW course?
 - 2.1 What are the EAW lecturers' perceptions of the EAW course in the context of EGAP and ESAP?
 - 2.2 What are the EAW lecturers', the EAW/ENGIN students' and the EAW/HS students' perceptions of the EAW course and student needs?
3. How do the EAW lecturers', the faculty lecturers', and students' perceptions of EAW indicate power relations?

The first research question (RQ 1) aims to identify the student academic writing needs from the perspectives of the EAW lecturers, the faculty lecturers and the students taking the EAW course in CELPAD, IIUM. In relation to the issues of the EAW students' needs and the effectiveness of the EAW course, the literature has shown that needs analysis is useful to evaluate the effectiveness of a course (Brown, 2016; Hyland, 2006). The findings from RQ 1 are to provide the present study with what Robinson (1991) categorises as the target needs (Target Situation Analysis or TSA) and the present needs (Present Situation Analysis or PSA).

The second research question (RQ 2) focuses on the EAW lecturers and students, the two stakeholders who were directly involved in the EAW course. There are two subquestions under this research question. RQ 2.1 aims to get the EAW lecturers' understanding of the EAW course with regard to EGAP and ESAP as two pedagogical approaches in EAP. On the other hand, the aim of RQ 2.2 is to identify the extent to which the EAW course meet student needs. This question was also addressed to the EAW lecturers and students for their perspectives.

Finally, the third research question (RQ 3) aims to elicit power relations among the stakeholders in the EAW course. Based on Foucault's (1980) concept of power as "always already there" (p. 141, as cited in Benesch, 1999, p. 315), the elements of power relations could be identified using Benesch's (2001a) rights analysis as the critical lens to analyse the data in the study. The use of rights analysis was to discover possible areas of change, while the use of needs analysis to answer RQ 1 and RQ 2 was to identify the institutional requirements (Benesch, 2001a).

2.10 Conclusion

To conclude, this chapter has provided the theoretical context for the present study. In order to set the subject of needs analysis in the context of academic writing in EAP, the chapter has discussed the history and the developments in the EAP field, followed by a discussion of academic writing in EAP. The discussion of three controversies: the two approaches in EAP – EGAP and ESAP; the approaches in the teaching of student writing – the study skills, academic socialisation and academic literacies models; and the pragmatic and critical perspectives on EAP, is to show how

they are interconnected and interrelated, and how their concepts and ideologies are related to needs analysis. The notion of universal skills versus specificity, discussed in the EGAP and ESAP approaches, is extended in the study skills and academic literacies models, while critical EAP shares an orientation with the academic literacies approach (Hyland, 2006). In relation to this, the purpose of my study was to investigate the student academic writing in IIUM, a public university in Malaysia. The framework of the study comprises the subject of needs analysis in the context of academic writing, discussed with reference to the pragmatic and critical approaches in EAP. This study was guided by two approaches in needs analysis in its conceptual framework – needs analysis (Robinson, 1991) and rights analysis (Benesch, 2001a).

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with the discussion of the theoretical and philosophical underpinnings related to the methodology of this study. The following section will be the discussion of the research design, where a review of selected studies, the purpose statement, and the mixed-method design will be presented. Next, the case which is the focus of this study will be discussed. The following sections will be on the research site, the research process, and the chapter conclusion.

3.2 Theoretical and Philosophical Underpinnings

Stake (1995) mentions that “case study research shares the burden of clarifying descriptions and sophisticating interpretations” (p. 102). To begin with, this case study was an intrinsic case study. According to Stake, an intrinsic case study is a case study that is conducted due to the researcher’s interest in the case. The purpose of the intrinsic case study is not to build a theory (although that can be an option) or understand a generic phenomenon (Merriam, 2009). It is conducted to understand a case because the case itself is of interest, and not because it represents other cases or exemplifies a particular characteristic or problem. The decision to use the students’ academic writing as the case for this study is because I was driven by the experience during my time teaching the EAW course. Thus, I adopted case study research in order to ‘clarify descriptions and sophisticate interpretations’ of the phenomenon in focus. On the other hand, Duff (2008) asserts that conducting a case study “for its own sake” (p. 101) is not an appropriate reason for higher education research. It is also important to present proper issues, goals, relevant past research and theoretical models. These have been addressed in the two previous chapters. According to Merriam (2009), “a theoretical framework is the underlying structure, the scaffolding or frame of your study” (p. 66). She also states that the framework can come from “the concepts, terms, definitions, models, and theories of

a particular literature base and disciplinary orientation” (p. 67). With regard to theories, the framework of my study was guided mainly by two theoretical underpinnings: the pragmatic approach to needs analysis by Robinson (1991) and the critical approach to needs analysis, or rights analysis, by Benesch (2001a). Juxtaposing needs analysis and rights analysis enabled me to address target needs concerning the students’ academic writing at their faculty, as well as identify issues that might be the obstacles for students to achieve the needs (Benesch, 2001a). In brief, the use of Robinson’s (1991) needs analysis was to capture the present needs and target needs of the participants, whereas Benesch’s (2001a) rights analysis was used to uncover underlying elements of power relations from the stakeholders’ perceptions of the student academic writing needs.

One of the most important methodological aspects in conducting research is the research paradigm. Thomas Kuhn, in his 1962 seminal book *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*, introduced the concept of paradigms (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Morgan, 2007). The word paradigm, which he first used in the book, means a philosophical way of thinking (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017), and has become a central concept in social science research methodology (Morgan, 2007). Kivuna and Kuyini (2017) state that the term paradigm in educational research is used to describe a researcher’s ‘worldview’, which is the perspective or a set of shared beliefs that informs the meaning of research data. With regard to methodology, determining the research paradigm means choosing the philosophical stance as the lens which determines what research methods to use and how the data will be analysed. On that note, positivism and constructivism are two philosophical paradigms that have been a subject of discussions and debates among researchers as to which paradigm to adopt for their research.

According to Merriam (2009), a “positivist orientation assumes that reality exists “out there” and it is observable, stable, and measureable” (p. 8). It is an epistemological position that has been associated with natural science, even though it is argued that it is a mistake to treat positivism as synonymous with science, as even philosophers of science disagree over the best way to characterise scientific practice (Bryman, 2012). Positivism has been associated with quantitative research, and this research paradigm has been labeled as the scientific method of investigation (Merriam,

2009; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). As a scientific method, it looks at cause and effect relationships in nature, and in its pure form, involves a process of experimentation used to explore observations and answer questions; it encompasses the deductive approach, formulation and testing of hypotheses and mathematical operations to generate conclusions (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). It was noted that the term ‘positivist paradigm’ was used by those who challenged its application in social science research when attention to qualitative research increased in the late 1970s (Morgan, 2007). At that time, there was no commonly agreed term for the dominant paradigm in the social science research methodology. It was the critics who labelled the existing dominant approach as the ‘positivist paradigm’ and described what it was.

The most widely known work that created alternatives to positivism originated from Egon Guba and Yvonna Lincoln, who developed “a system for comparing different ‘paradigms’ in social science research through a familiar trilogy of concepts from the philosophy of knowledge: ontology, epistemology, and methodology” (Morgan, 2007, p. 57). According to Kivunja and Kuyini (2017), ontology is concerned with the assumptions we make to believe that something makes sense or is real (i.e., what is reality?), whereas epistemology is used to describe how we come to know the truth or reality (i.e., how do we know something?). Methodology refers to how we go about to find out something, using well-planned research designs, methods, approaches and procedures including data gathering, selection of participants and instruments, and data analysis (i.e., how do we go about finding it out?).

Another element of a research paradigm is axiology. Axiology refers to the ethics and values that researchers have to consider before conducting research (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Morgan, 2007). It is about considering issues such as the participants’ rights, confidentiality of data and other questions relating to ethics in conducting research. It is important to note that although axiology is regarded as one of the elements in a research paradigm, Morgan (2007) views it as not appropriately placed in the philosophy of knowledge, but rather belonging to the branches of philosophy known as ‘ethics’ and ‘aesthetics’. This is because it does not concern “the nature of reality or the possibility of objective truth” (Morgan, 2007, p. 58). In other words, Morgan prefers axiology to be used to consider values alongside issues of ontology, epistemology, and

methodology.

Guba and Lincoln, in their early comparisons of paradigms in 1985, compared positivism with a competing paradigm they called “naturalistic inquiry,” which became better known as constructivism or also known as interpretivism (Creswell, 2014; Merriam, 2009; Morgan, 2007). Constructivism is an important paradigm from qualitative researchers’ perspective. The central undertaking of constructivism or interpretivism is to understand the subjective world of human experience (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, as cited in Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Creswell (2014) states that constructivism believes that

individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. Individuals develop subjective meanings of their experiences – meanings directed toward certain objects or things. These meanings are varied and multiple, leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas. The goal of the research is to rely as much as possible on the participants’ views of the situation being studied.
(p. 8)

According to Merriam (2009) and Stake (1995), it is a belief of many qualitative researchers that reality or knowledge is constructed, not discovered; researchers construct knowledge, not find it. Thus, it is important to understand and interpret the viewpoint of the subjects being studied by ‘getting into their heads’, as the focus is on the subjects’ understanding and their interpretation of the world around them (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). According to Bogdan and Biklen (1989, as cited in Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017), the key principle of the interpretivism is that reality is socially constructed. In other words, constructivism is a social construction of reality, and “there is no single, observable reality. Rather, there are multiple realities, or interpretations, of a single event” (Merriam, 2009, p. 8).

Another research paradigm advocates the use of mixed methods in its methodology; it is known as the pragmatic paradigm. Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) state that philosophers like Patton, Tashakkori and Teddlie have argued for the need for a more practical approach that “could allow a combination of methods that in conjunction could shed light on the actual behaviour of participants, the beliefs that stand behind

those behaviours and the consequences that are likely to follow from different behaviours” (p. 35). Morgan (2007) notes that Guba and Lincoln and some strong proponents of constructivism did not object to combining methods as long as the paradigms are not combined, as they believed that “the most important aspects of paradigm allegiances were ontological commitments, not the mundane use of research methods” (p. 64). This suggests that researchers have the flexibility to use the methods that they deem suitable for their research purposes. The pragmatic research paradigm offers an alternative to researchers to apply a mixed-method design for their research. Nevertheless, there are different types of the mixed-method design that researchers can consider. A discussion on the mixed-method design is provided in section 3.3.4.

Merriam (2009) states that qualitative research should be grounded in a particular philosophical position. In relation to my case study, I was mainly guided by the philosophy of constructivism. Since my case study was about investigating student academic writing needs, I viewed constructivism as an appropriate orientation for me to interact with my qualitative data. The constructivist paradigm was used to understand lecturers’ and students’ perceptions of student academic writing needs. They constructed their knowledge or reality based on their individual experience in writing and interpreted it based on their perceived understandings.

Additionally, having employed a quantitative method as part of the triangulation process, I also adopted a pragmatic paradigm, which involved a method from the positivist approach – a survey questionnaire. Greene and McClintock (1985) argued for the appropriacy of positivism in relation to using questionnaires in a mixed-method research as follows: “the positivist nature of the questionnaire component is reflected in its intent to derive prescriptions for change from a deductive analysis of responses on a predetermined set of specific variables” (p. 530). Morgan (2007) claims that the appropriateness of methods is not something that is automatic; we have to decide what is appropriate and important. The next section provides a thorough discussion of the research design for this case study.

3.3 Research Design

Yin (2014) describes research designs as “the logical sequence that connects the empirical data to a study’s initial research questions and, ultimately, to its conclusions” (p. 28). The following subsections begin with an introduction, and are followed by a discussion of needs analysis in case studies, the purpose statement and the complementarity mixed-method design.

3.3.1 Introduction.

This case study employed a single-case (embedded) design (Yin, 2014). Before the research design of this case study is explained in detail, this section will give a description about case study research. Case study research has been used by many researchers, and some of the prominent case study methodologists are Robert K. Yin, Robert E. Stake and Sharon B. Merriam. These three renowned methodologists have been writing about case study research as methodology since the 1980s (Merriam, 2009). Case studies are difficult to define because they vary in focus and research data (McKay, 2006). There are a variety of definitions related to case study research in the literature, but I only chose the ones that are related to the context of research in the field of social sciences. Miles, Huberman and Saldaña (2014) define a case as a unit of analysis – a “phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context” (p. 28). Merriam (2009) defines case study as “an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system” (p. 40), while Yin (2014), has a more elaborate definition. His definition is twofold:

1. A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the ‘case’) in depth and within its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident.
2. A case study inquiry copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as one result relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and as another result benefits from the prior development of theoretical positions to guide data collection and analysis.

(Yin, 2014, pp. 16-17)

Yin's (2014) definition of case study addresses the issues of scope, data collection and analysis strategies (Duff, 2008). Other than conveying the notion of in-depth description and boundedness as reflected in Merriam's (2009) definition, Yin's definition also includes the importance of triangulating the sources of evidence. In brief, a case study is an empirical inquiry that takes a close-up look at a phenomenon within its real-world context. Merriam concludes that "the single most defining characteristic of case study research lies in delimiting the object of study, the case" (p. 40). In this regard, a case "could be a single person who is a case example of some phenomenon, a program, a group, an institution, a community, or a specific policy" (p. 40). Yin also highlights the importance of defining the case and bounding the case. He mentions that a case can involve small groups, communities, decisions, programmes, organisational change, and specific events.

To further define the case study, Merriam (2009) lists three characteristics of qualitative case studies: 'particularistic', 'descriptive' and 'heuristic'. First, 'particularistic' refers to the focus of the case study – it can be on a particular situation, event, program, or phenomenon. The second characteristic, 'descriptive', refers to the final product of a case study, which should be a rich, thick description of the phenomenon being studied. Finally, 'heuristic' means that a case study should enhance the readers' understanding of the phenomenon being studied.

Additionally, Yin (2014) lists five components which are important in a research design: (1) a case study's questions; (2) its propositions, if any; (3) its unit(s) of analysis; (4) the logic linking the data to the propositions; and (5) the criteria for interpreting findings. The questions usually asked in a case study are the 'how' and 'why' questions. However, research questions can also take other forms such as 'what' questions, as "some types of 'what' questions are exploratory" (p. 10). The propositions, which are the second component of the case study research design, lead towards the purpose of the study. The researcher can have the option whether to state the propositions in their case study or not. Thirdly, another important component of the case study research design is the unit(s) of analysis or the "case" being studied. As discussed earlier, Yin stresses two steps that need to be considered for this component -

defining the case and bounding the case. A case can be individuals, communities, decisions, programs, organisational change and specific events. Linking data to propositions is the fourth component mentioned by Yin, and he lists five ways of doing so: pattern matching, explanation building, time-series analysis, logic models, and cross-case synthesis. All these are types of analysis which require combinations of case study data to be a direct reflection of the case study proposition. Finally, the criteria for interpreting the findings for a case study involves addressing rival explanations for the findings. Yin argues that “the more rivals that have been addressed and rejected, the stronger will be your findings” (p. 36).

3.3.2 Needs analysis in case studies.

This section will present some previous case studies done in the area of needs analysis, with a focus on the methods they used. The selected studies were conducted not in the context of EAP, but in the context of needs in the workplace; nonetheless, they were chosen as they used case studies in their research designs to conduct needs analysis, which is the main subject in my research framework. The studies served as a methodological reference for this case study. Altogether there are three case studies that will be discussed: the ones by Jasso-Aguilar (1999), Cowling (2007), and Spence and Liu (2013).

Jasso-Aguilar (1999) conducted a case study at a hotel in Waikiki. Her objectives were twofold. First, the main purpose was to compare several methods and sources available in needs analysis. Second, using needs analysis, she wanted to identify the tasks performed by the hotel maids to do their daily routine and the language involved in the tasks. She conducted the needs analysis within the framework of needs analysis for the workplace. She obtained her data from the human resources person, the executive housekeeper, three housekeepers, various supervisors, a task force consisting of people of different expertise (maintenance, security, housekeeping, front desk and human resource) who had contact with the hotel maids, morning briefings where the supervisors reminded the housekeepers about their duties and dealt with their issues, and documents such as job and routine descriptions.

The methods that she used were participant observations, unstructured interviews and questionnaires. From the study, she found that participant observations were the most useful method. On the other hand, questionnaires gave very little information on either language or tasks. She concluded that using multiple sources and methods were valuable for identifying learners' needs, and participant observations were successful to familiarise the researcher with the tasks and language and identify more valuable data sources. In addition, triangulation of methods enabled the researcher to identify the most reliable sources. In the context of case study research, integrating qualitative and quantitative data helps the researcher to get a holistic understanding of the phenomenon being studied (Baxter & Jack, 2008). Additionally, the use of multiple sources to obtain the data and triangulation of methods can also contribute to the reliability and validity of research (Brown, 2001; Creswell, 2014; Yin, 2014).

Cowling's (2007) case study described the needs analysis stage during the development of English language materials for an English intensive course at a Japanese company. Needs analysis was the first stage of the course development. Cowling described the different methods that he used in the needs analysis to get the data. Initially, the client who requested the course recommended the content of the course to be based on perceived needs rather than the learners' actual needs. However, Cowling decided to use multiple sources and triangulate the findings to increase the reliability of the data to be used for the course content. Therefore, the sources used were the sales director who was responsible for the language training contracts, the client who requested the intensive course, the English language instructors, and the learners who would take the course.

In considering the methods, Cowling did not conduct a language audit because of the short time and budget constraints. He also did not choose to use observations due to the same reasons and, it was "arguable whether this would reveal any useful details about the actual needs of the students" (p. 430). Cowling finally chose interviews and questionnaires as the methods for the needs analysis. He conducted interviews with all participants and distributed questionnaires to the students. The findings from the comparisons and triangulation of results revealed that the syllabus was required to provide nine areas of study helpful for students' working life, provide a communicative

course related to the business context, provide a course that considers cultural issues, and provide authentic examples of language.

One of the things that can be learned from Cowling's (2007) methodology in his case study is that he chose his methods based on the practicality and usefulness of the methods. Compared to Jasso-Aguilar (1999) who used observations, interviews and questionnaires, Cowling only used interviews and questionnaires. Although he was aware of the two other possible methods that he could have used, which were a language audit and observations, he decided not to use them due to the time and budget constraints. He also thought that observations would not provide him with useful data with regard to student needs. This suggests that when choosing the methods, it is important to consider the situation and have in mind criteria to fulfill, and choose the methods that can best fulfill those criteria (Morgan, 2007). In addition, despite the advantages of obtaining data from multiple data sources, managing and analysing overwhelming amounts of data can cause problems to researchers as they might "find themselves 'lost' in the data" (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p. 554). The present case study employed interviews and questionnaires as they were believed to be the most appropriate methods, as questionnaires facilitated access to a bigger data collection, and interviews allowed investigating the phenomenon at a greater depth. Even though Cowling did not use all the methods that he was aware of, Cowling's use of more than one method provides data credibility to his case study (Yin, 2014).

In a case study by Spence and Liu (2013), the researchers had identified that Taiwanese companies required engineers to be competent in all skills in English, namely reading, writing, listening and speaking. On the other hand, they found that there had been no needs analysis conducted for engineers in Taiwan. They then conducted a needs analysis of the English language needs for process integration engineers (PIEs) at Taiwan Semiconductor Manufacturing Company (TSMC). The research questions of their study were: "1. With whom do process integration engineers communicate in English at TSMC?; 2. What modes of communication are used when process integration engineers communicate in English?; 3. What are the English skills needed by process integration engineers to effectively conduct their daily working tasks?; and 4. What tasks do process integration engineers perform that require

English?” (p. 99). The methods involved interviews, observations and online questionnaires. They triangulated their sources and methods in conducting the needs analysis. First, they compared within group interview responses with each other. Then, they contrasted the responses with the survey data. They also did on-site observations of PIEs’ daily working situation and interviewed one of the customers. The results indicated that most PIEs communicated in English with foreign customers and used multiple communication tools. Email was the most common mode of communication. Finally, the common tasks that PIEs performed were writing minutes of meetings, memos, project proposals, reports and making presentations.

Spence and Liu’s (2013) methodology is similar to Jasso-Aguilar’s (1999) as they both used interviews, observations and questionnaires. The difference is that Spence and Liu administered their questionnaires online. Spence and Liu’s use of the online platform to administer their questionnaire can be regarded as a more efficient method for this purpose as it speeds up the process and facilitates the researchers when it comes to storing and managing the data since they are all in the digital form. It also has a high level of anonymity, and helps the researchers in terms of the convenience of administration, cost-effectiveness and access to specific populations (Dörnyei, 2007). For the same reason, the questionnaires for this present case study were administered online. However, although the online platform might be convenient, it does not guarantee a desired response rate. Thus, it is advisable that a researcher has several measures to deal with this possibility.

In summary, all the three case studies presented used more than one method of conducting needs analysis. They used multiple sources and methods and triangulated them to increase the validity and reliability of the study (Brown, 2001). The case studies by Jasso-Aguilar (1999) and Spence and Liu (2013) used three methods compared to Cowling’s (2007) that used only two. Even though Cowling only used interviews and questionnaires, he justified the reason for not using other methods like observations. To conclude, these case studies indicate that using and triangulating multiple sources and methods are considered important by researchers to achieve more valid and reliable results in their studies. Additionally, Jasso-Aguilar showed evidence suggesting that some methods are more useful than the others, as she compared the usefulness of

participant observations with the less useful data from questionnaires. The methods in these studies can be compared to the present study that used online questionnaires and interviews in conducting needs analysis.

3.3.3 The purpose statement.

The purpose of my case study was to investigate academic writing at a public university, in relation to student writing needs and the context of academic writing in a writing course, English for Academic Writing (or EAW) and the faculties. The case study intended to get the writing lecturers', the faculty lecturers' and the students' perceptions of the phenomenon. The present case study applied the complementarity mixed-method design. Quantitative and qualitative instruments were used to elicit the student needs as well as gauge the students' and lecturers' attitudes towards academic writing and the EAW course. The research site for the study was a public university in Malaysia, the International Islamic University Malaysia (IIUM), which provided the context of the academic writing use among the students. The writing course (English for Academic Writing or EAW), provided by the language centre in the university (CELPAD), was the intermediary unit (Yin, 2014) where the issues regarding academic writing arose.

3.3.4 The mixed-method design.

The mixed-method design had been used to conduct the research in this case study. Specifically, the approach that was employed was the complementarity mixed-method design (Greene, Caracelli & Graham, 1989). Before a discussion on the complementarity mixed-method design, I will present some definitions of the mixed-method design, and describe the two important elements of the design: qualitative and quantitative research.

3.3.4.1 Definitions of the mixed-method design.

The notion of a mixed-method approach to research has been in the literature since as early as the 19th century (Erzberger & Prein, 1997). However, according to Erzberger and Prein, the methodological proposition for combining quantitative and

qualitative techniques in the same research design was presented by Barton and Lazarsfeld in 1955. To date, there are a number of definitions of the mixed-method design. Greene and McClintock (1985) identify two dimensions of the mixed-method design: “(a) the degree of independence of the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis activities and (b) the degree to which the implementation of both methods is sequential and iterative versus concurrent” (p. 525). Dörnyei (2007) describes the mixed-method design as “the collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study with some attempts to integrate the two approaches at one or more stages of the research process” (p. 163). In comparison, Bryman (2012) comes up with a simpler definition. He associates the mixed-method design label with “research that combines research methods that cross the two research strategies” (p. 628). His definition does not specify the type of research methods. Creswell (2014) has given a definition which is closer to Dörnyei’s but simpler like Bryman’s. He defines the mixed-method design as a combination or integration of qualitative and quantitative research and data in a study. Creswell has also added more specific information to the definition. He states that qualitative data “tends to be open-ended without predetermined responses while quantitative data usually includes closed-ended responses such as found on questionnaires or psychological instruments” (p. 14). Yin (2014) points out that mixed methods research enables richer and stronger data to be collected to answer more complicated research questions. In short, the mixed-method design is a study that combines qualitative and quantitative research methods.

Since the idea of qualitative and quantitative is reflected in the definition of the mixed-method design, it is crucial that we understand the meaning of qualitative and quantitative research to understand what the mixed-method design is. According to Bryman (2012), qualitative research is “a research strategy that usually emphasizes words rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of data” (p.380). He adds that it is “broadly inductivist, constructionist, and interpretivist, but qualitative researchers do not always subscribe to all three of these features” (p. 380). Dörnyei (2007) mentions that qualitative research has been regarded as difficult to define. However, he summarises qualitative research as having six main characteristics. The first one is the emergent nature of qualitative research. This means that qualitative

researchers can start their research without having to set out preconceived hypotheses, and are flexible to make changes during the process. The second feature of qualitative research is the nature of qualitative data. Most data are transformed into a textual form as most qualitative data analyses are done with words. The next feature is the characteristics of the research setting. Qualitative research is done in a natural setting with no control over the situation. The fourth characteristic of qualitative research is regarding the insider meaning. Qualitative research explores participants' views as it is concerned with subjective opinions, feelings and experiences. Furthermore, qualitative research usually has a small sample size. The last characteristic of qualitative research is it is fundamentally interpretive. This means that the results of the research are the researchers' interpretation of the data.

Bryman (2012) tries to capture the characteristics of quantitative research by describing it as

entailing the collection of numerical data, as exhibiting a view of the relationship between theory and research as deductive and a predilection for a natural science approach (and of positivism in particular), and as having an objectivist conception of social reality. (p. 160)

On the other hand, Dörnyei (2007) describes quantitative research by describing six main features of quantitative research. The first and the most important characteristic of quantitative research according to him is it mainly uses numbers. This feature can both be an advantage or disadvantage. It can be an advantage as numbers are a powerful tool in research as proven in the discipline of mathematics. However, its disadvantage is numbers depend on contextual support to make their use meaningful. The second feature is also related to number; quantitative research requires a priori categorisation. What this means is that specific categories and values need to be assigned to numbers before the actual study. The third characteristic of quantitative research is it sees variables as more important than cases. For example, quantitative researchers are more interested in studying relationships between variables than understanding individuals. The next feature is quantitative research consists of statistics and the language of statistics. The statistical analyses can be calculating the average of some figures or running complex analyses using computational software. The fifth characteristic is

quantitative research uses standardised research procedures to make sure of the stability of the researchers and the subjects. Finally, quantitative research is a quest for generalisability and universal laws. What this means is that all other features mentioned earlier are part of a quest for facts that are generalisable and universal.

In relation to combining qualitative and quantitative research methods in the mixed-method design, Rossman and Wilson (1986) summarise the practice by stating, “Ultimately, combining methods in a single study is triangulation” (p. 632). Greene and McClintock (1985) also use the term triangulation to refer to the use of quantitative and qualitative methods in the mixed-method design. In a more detailed definition, triangulation refers to “the designed use of multiple methods, with offsetting or counteracting biases, in investigations of the same phenomenon in order to strengthen the validity of inquiry results” (Greene, Caracelli & Graham, 1989, p. 256).

Triangulation has been acknowledged by many researchers to be a useful practice in the mixed-method design, as it is a way of ensuring research credibility (Davis, 1995) and achieving reliability and validity (Greene & McClintock, 1985; Serafini et al. 2015; Yin, 2014). In the context of case study research, Yin (2014) explains the rationale of triangulating many sources of evidence as giving case studies higher quality than those that only used single source of information, as it helps to strengthen the construct validity of a case study. It is one of the ways to achieve trustworthiness in case study research (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

3.3.4.2 The complementarity mixed-method design.

The complementarity mixed-method design was proposed as one of the ways to mix qualitative and quantitative research methods by Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989). The design was proposed as a result of their study to develop a conceptual framework to inform and guide the practice of mixed-method research. The study was a comprehensive review of 57 mixed-method evaluation studies. From the results, they identified five designs in mixed-method studies, which they called mixed-method evaluation designs: triangulation; complementarity; development; initiation; and expansion (Table 5).

Table 5. *Mixed-method Evaluation Designs*

Design	Purpose	Rationale
Triangulation	seeks convergence, corroboration, correspondence of results from the different methods.	To increase the validity of constructs and inquiry results by counteracting or maximizing the heterogeneity of irrelevant sources of variance attributable especially to inherent method bias but also to inquirer bias, bias of substantive theory, biases of inquiry context.
Complementarity	seeks elaboration, enhancement, illustration, classification of the results from one method with the results from the other method.	To increase the interpretability, meaningfulness, and validity of constructs and inquiry results by both capitalizing on inherent method strengths and counteracting inherent biases in methods and other sources.
Development	seeks to use the results from one method to help develop or inform the other method, where development is broadly construed to include sampling and implementation, as well as measurement decisions.	To increase the validity of constructs and inquiry results by capitalizing on inherent method strengths.
Initiation	seeks the discovery of paradox and contradiction, new perspectives of framework, the recasting of questions or results from one method with questions or results from the other method.	To increase the breadth and depth of inquiry results and interpretations by analyzing them from the different perspectives of different methods and paradigms.
Expansion	seeks to extend the breadth and range of inquiry by using different methods for different inquiry components.	To increase the scope of inquiry by selecting the methods most appropriate for multiple inquiry components.

Note: Greene, Caracelli & Graham (1989, p. 259)

Table 5 shows a classification of mixed-method designs typically employed in mixed-method research. Each design has its specific purpose and rationale. It is important to highlight here that the designs were proposed based on the identification of the purposes of the 57 mixed-method evaluation studies that were reviewed by Greene et al. (1989). In other words, they used the purposes of the studies that they analysed in

the review and named the designs after the purposes. Seven characteristics were used in categorising each purpose or design. The characteristics are listed as follows:

1. Methods – the degree to which the qualitative and quantitative methods selected for a given study are similar to or different from one another in form, assumptions, strengths, and limitations or biases.
2. Phenomena – the degree to which the qualitative and quantitative methods are intended to assess totally different phenomena or exactly the same phenomenon. Mid-range phenomena positions occur when qualitative and quantitative methods overlap in their intent, yet also capitalize on the strengths of one or both methods to secure additional information.
3. Paradigms – the degree to which the different method types are implemented within the same or different paradigms.
4. Status – the degree to which a study’s qualitative and quantitative methods have equally important or central roles vis-à-vis the study’s overall objectives.
5. Implementation: Independence – the degree to which the qualitative and quantitative methods are conceptualized, designed, and implemented interactively or independently can be viewed on a continuum.
6. Implementation: Timing – although ‘implementation: independence’ can be viewed on a continuum, a pair of methods is typically implemented concurrently or sequentially, not in between.
7. Study – the empirical research either encompassed one study or more than one study.

(Greene et al., 1989, pp. 262-264)

The design that I would like to focus on in this discussion is the complementarity mixed-method design, which was used in this case study. A clearer picture of the design can be seen by comparing it with triangulation. Yin (2014) uses the term convergence of evidence to refer to the case study where data have really been triangulated to support its findings. Greene et al. (1989) state that, “A mixed-method design with a triangulation intent seeks convergence in the classic sense of triangulation” (p. 258). They explain that triangulation is strong when “the status of different methods – that is, their relative weight and influence – is equal and when the

quantitative and qualitative study components are implemented independently and simultaneously” (p. 266).

On the other hand, the complementarity mixed-method design is different from the triangulation mixed-method design. One of its common purposes is “to use the results from one method to elaborate, enhance, or illustrate the results from the other” (p. 266). They mention that “interpretability is best enhanced when the methods are implemented simultaneously and interactively within a single study” (p. 267).

In comparison to Greene et al.’s (1989) mixed-method evaluation designs, Rossman and Wilson (1985) discuss how quantitative and qualitative methods can be combined in a single study. They identify three analytic functions of what they called ‘between-methods design’ – corroboration, elaboration and initiation. Corroboration is similar to the triangulation mixed-method design as both seek convergence in findings. Elaboration, on the other hand, provides richness and detail. This model can be compared with the complementarity mixed-method design, in which one of its purposes is instead to elaborate. The last one, initiation, is indeed the same as the one in Greene et al.’s mixed-method evaluation designs. It seeks contradiction by recasting the questions or results to bring fresh insight and new perspectives. Additionally, Erzberger and Prein (1997) differentiate the approaches to triangulation by classifying them as convergence, complementarity and dissonance. It can be said that convergence and complementarity match nicely with the categories of triangulation mixed-method design (Greene et al., 1989) and corroboration (Rossman & Wilson, 1985) respectively.

The present case study employed the complementarity mixed-method design in the sense that it used qualitative and quantitative instruments to obtain complementary findings to enhance and elaborate each other. The instruments used were questionnaires and interviews, and according to Brown (2001), these two types of instruments are complementary. In addition, the case study can also be regarded as using a cross-sectional design, where groups of different people were studied at one point in time (Coolican, 1995) using a mixed methods approach, where quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analysed to answer the research questions.

3.4 The Case

Generally, the purpose of this case study was to investigate academic writing at a public university, with regard to student needs and its context in a writing course. Therefore, the case is academic writing, and I related it to the context of student needs in EAW, a writing course. In addition, bounding the case involves identifying the context of the study so that the units of analysis can be distinguished from other elements outside the context. This practice is also known as the bounded system (Merriam, 2009). In this study, the context was academic writing in a public university, IIUM. Hence, the practice and needs of academic writing being studied were not related to the practice and needs of academic writing outside the university. Specifically, I investigated academic writing among engineering and human sciences students taking the EAW course. The theoretical proposition that I developed before the case study was, ‘the case study will give an understanding of academic writing from the perceptions of student academic writing needs in the context of an EAP course’.

Yin (2014) divides case study research designs into four: the single-case (holistic) design; the single-case (embedded) design; the multiple-case (holistic) design; and the multiple-case (embedded) design. The single case designs are usually chosen when the case is critical, unusual, common, revelatory, or longitudinal. A case is critical if there is a theoretical position that needs to be proven in the study. A case is unusual if it is an extreme case which deviates from social norms. Moreover, a case is common if the purpose of the study is to capture a situation. Additionally, a case is revelatory if the case under study was not previously accessible. Finally, a case is longitudinal when the case is studied at two or more different times. On the other hand, the multiple-case designs involve employing replication of several cases. An important consideration when using the multiple-case designs is the number of cases deemed necessary or enough for the study.

The case designs can be holistic or embedded. For the single-case design, it is holistic if the case study only examines the whole nature of a case, for example, a case study on a single mother. In this example, the single mother is the only unit of analysis of the case. On the other hand, the embedded, single-case design may involve a subunit or subunits. For example, a case study might be about a company, but the analysis

might involve outcomes about the work culture of staff in the company. Yin (2014) even mentions the possibility of having quantitative analyses in an embedded, single-case study. In an example, he described a case study about the politics of an international union, which involved several units of analysis. I would like to draw on his description about the units of analysis in the case study:

The main unit was the organization as a whole, the smallest unit was the individual member, and several intermediary units were also important. At each level of analysis, different data collection techniques were used, ranging from historical to survey analysis. (p. 54)

The present case study advocated an embedded, single-case design. An embedded case study design involves units of analysis at more than one level when the attention is given to a subunit or subunits within a single case (Yin, 2014). For this case study, the main case or the main unit of analysis was academic writing among undergraduate students in IIUM, the intermediary unit of analysis was the student writing in the context of needs and a writing course, and the five subunits of analysis in the study were: (1) English language lecturers at a language centre who taught the academic writing course (EAW lecturers); (2) lecturers at the engineering faculty (ENGIN lecturers); (3) lecturers at the human sciences faculty (HS lecturers); (4) engineering students who took EAW at CELPAD (ENGIN/EAW students); and (5) human sciences students who took EAW at CELPAD (HS/EAW students). This is illustrated in Figure 4. Figure 4 shows that the students' academic writing in IIUM was the case being investigated in the case study, the students' academic writing in the context of needs and a writing course (EAW) was the intermediary unit of analysis, and the five embedded subunits of analysis are shown in five boxes.

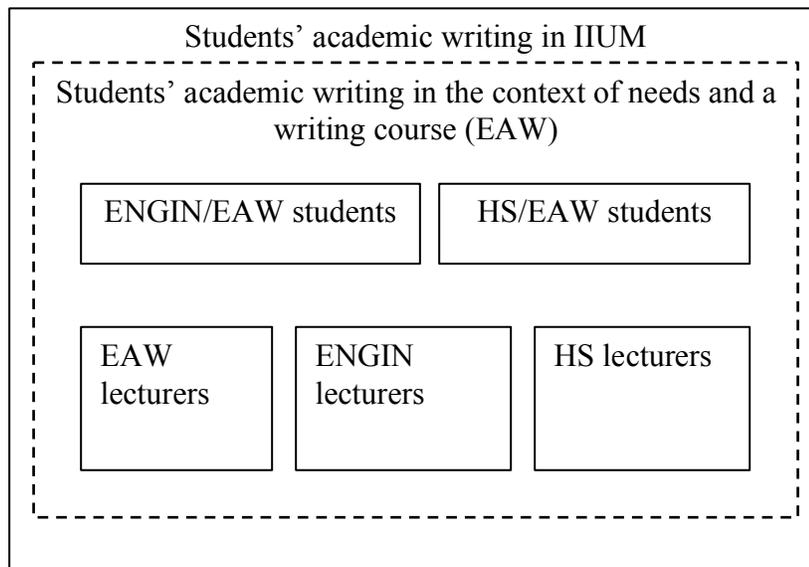


Figure 4. The embedded, single-case design of the study.

Apart from the EAW lecturers who were from CELPAD, the other subunits of analysis were from the engineering (ENGIN) and human sciences (HS) faculties. The selection of the faculties was done in two stages. In the first stage, based on my experience teaching academic writing more than five years prior to this study, I observed that in general, the engineering faculty was one of the faculties (together with the architecture, economics and information communication technology faculties) that had students struggling with their writing. Discussions with the students revealed that they struggled to write in the course as their writing requirements in their faculty were different. In contrast, students from the faculties of human sciences, law and education were generally more proficient with their writing. Thus, I recorded these faculties as I was interested to investigate students' writing from two different groups – one which was doing well and one which was struggling with writing. Second, as part of the data collection process, I elicited the EAW lecturers' opinion on the faculties which they had any preferences or difficulties teaching during the interviews (see subsection 3.6.4.2). Even though the data revealed a number of faculties, I was only able to get cooperation

from the engineering and human sciences faculties to collect data for my study. Therefore, these two faculties were chosen.

3.5 The Research Site

The main site for the case study was the International Islamic University Malaysia (IIUM), Gombak, Malaysia. The case study was specifically conducted at three sites in the university: the language centre (Centre for Languages and Pre-University Academic Development – CELPAD), the engineering faculty (Kulliyah of Engineering – ENGIN), and the human sciences faculty (Kulliyah of Islamic Revealed Knowledge and Human Sciences – HS).

3.5.1 The language centre (CELPAD).

CELPAD is situated at the main campus of IIUM, Gombak. It was first established as The Centre for Languages (CfL) in July 1983 together with the Centre for Fundamental Knowledge, Kulliyah of Economics and Kulliyah of Laws. In May 1993, the Centre for Languages was renamed the Centre for Languages and Pre-University Academic Development or CELPAD. The centre bears the responsibility to teach languages at the IIUM. It is responsible to make sure that all IIUM students have the required competence of the languages required for their academic purposes. The language courses offered by CELPAD are English, Arabic, Malay and Tilawah al-Quran. Additionally, the centre also offers Mandarin, Japanese and French courses. Since 2008, CELPAD has been organising its own international conference, International Language Conference (ILC), to provide an avenue for academics, researchers, practitioners, course providers and students to showcase their work pertaining to language teaching, learning and research (International Islamic University Malaysia, n.d. -a) .

3.5.2 The engineering faculty (ENGIN).

The engineering faculty was established in March 1994. It started off with only three departments - Electrical and Computer Engineering, Manufacturing Engineering and Mechatronics Engineering. To date, the departments at the faculty are:

- Department of Mechatronics Engineering
- Department of Manufacturing & Materials Engineering
- Department of Mechanical Engineering
- Department of Science in Engineering
- Department of Biotechnology Engineering
- Department of Civil Engineering
- Computer and Information Engineering
- Manufacturing Engineering
- Mechatronics Engineering
- Automotive Engineering
- Biotechnology Engineering
- Communication Engineering
- Materials Engineering
- Aerospace Engineering
- Civil Engineering

(International Islamic University Malaysia, n.d. -b)

Generally, students who graduate from the engineering faculty are expected to have leadership and technical expertise to advance in their career, show moral and professional commitment for the betterment of society, be involved in entrepreneurial activities, and be involved in life-long learning through postgraduate education and professional development.

3.5.3 The human sciences faculty (HS).

The human sciences faculty was established in 1990. With over 4,000 students and about 250 academics, it is the biggest faculty in IIUM. The faculty has two main divisions: the Human Science division (HS) and the Islamic Revealed Knowledge division (IRK). These are the departments under the Human Science division:

- Department of Communication (COMM)
- Department of English Language and Literature (DELL)
- Department of History and Civilization (HIST)
- Department of Political Science (PSCI)

- Department of Psychology (PSYC)

The departments under the Islamic revealed Knowledge division (IRK) are:

- Department of Arabic Language and Literature (DALL)
- Department of Fiqh and Usul al-Fiqh (RKFAQ)
- Department of General Studies (RKGS)
- Department of Qur'an and Sunnah (RKQS)
- Department of Usul al-Din and Comparative Religion (RKUD)
- Department of Sociology and Anthropology (SOCA)

(International Islamic University Malaysia, n.d. -c)

With two large divisions under its roof, the faculty aims to integrate Islamic Revealed Knowledge and Human Sciences disciplines to produce holistic individuals who can be religious as well as knowledgeable in their fields.

3.5.4 Doing research at the site.

Being a lecturer at IIUM, the main site of the research, I did not face any difficulties moving around campus, getting access to the language centre and the faculties, finding the lecturers' rooms to meet them, making contacts with the students and using most facilities provided for students and staff at the university. All three sites – the language centre (CELPAD), the engineering faculty (ENGIN) and the human sciences faculty (HS) – were on campus and about five minutes' walk apart. I took advantage of this to expedite my data collection process, especially in conducting the interviews (I did not have to use the venues to administer my questionnaires as they were done online).

Almost all interviews with the lecturers were done in their offices, except for some EAW lecturers who requested to have the interviews at the resource centre at CELPAD, as it was common for them to spend their free time there. The resource centre was a convenient place to conduct interviews as we used the small meeting rooms inside the resource centre to make sure that the interviews were done smoothly and without interruptions. The rest of interviews with EAW lecturers were done in their offices. All the rooms were comfortable – they had proper chairs and a big table, were

air-conditioned and had a minimum level of noise from outside. Some of the lecturers had offices to themselves, but some share their offices with another lecturer. However, since all interviews were pre-arranged, they had already made arrangements with their colleagues not to be there during the interviews and the arrangements went well. On other hand, there were a few occasions when the interview was interrupted by knocks on the door, usually by students. All the lecturers' rooms were located in CELPAD's building. The building was located right in the middle of the university campus. This strategic location made it easy for me to access the building, and since I am university staff, getting access to any levels or offices at any time was not a problem.

All interviews with lecturers were done during office hours, which was between 9.00 am and 5.00 pm. Before the interviews, I contacted each participant to ask for his or her availability, and set the date, time and venue for the interview. The participants were also asked to bring along any of their students' written assignments or project papers for the interviews. Interviews with faculty lecturers were all done in their offices. Generally, their rooms were similar to the EAW lecturers' room in the sense that it was suitable to conduct interviews there. In fact, none of faculty lecturers share the rooms with anyone so it was even easier for the interviews to be conducted. However, the interviews with the students were slightly different in terms of the convenience of the research sites. Even though all the interviews were done on campus, the locations varied depending on the convenience of the students. Interviews with students were also done between 9.00 am and 5.00 pm. Most of them were done indoors, either in the labs or in the classrooms, but some of them had to be done in cafes. Even though we chose the most isolated spots in the cafes, sometimes there was a distraction from surrounding noise. Nevertheless, this posed no major problems and the interviews were conducted successfully.

3.6 The Research Process

Figure 5 shows the research process as summarised in ten steps and presented in the following subsections. It is important to note that the steps are to show what has been done in the research process; they do not indicate a chronological order although some of them might have required a particular order. For example, 'conducting review

of literature' was an ongoing process which began at the first stage and continued until the end of the research process.

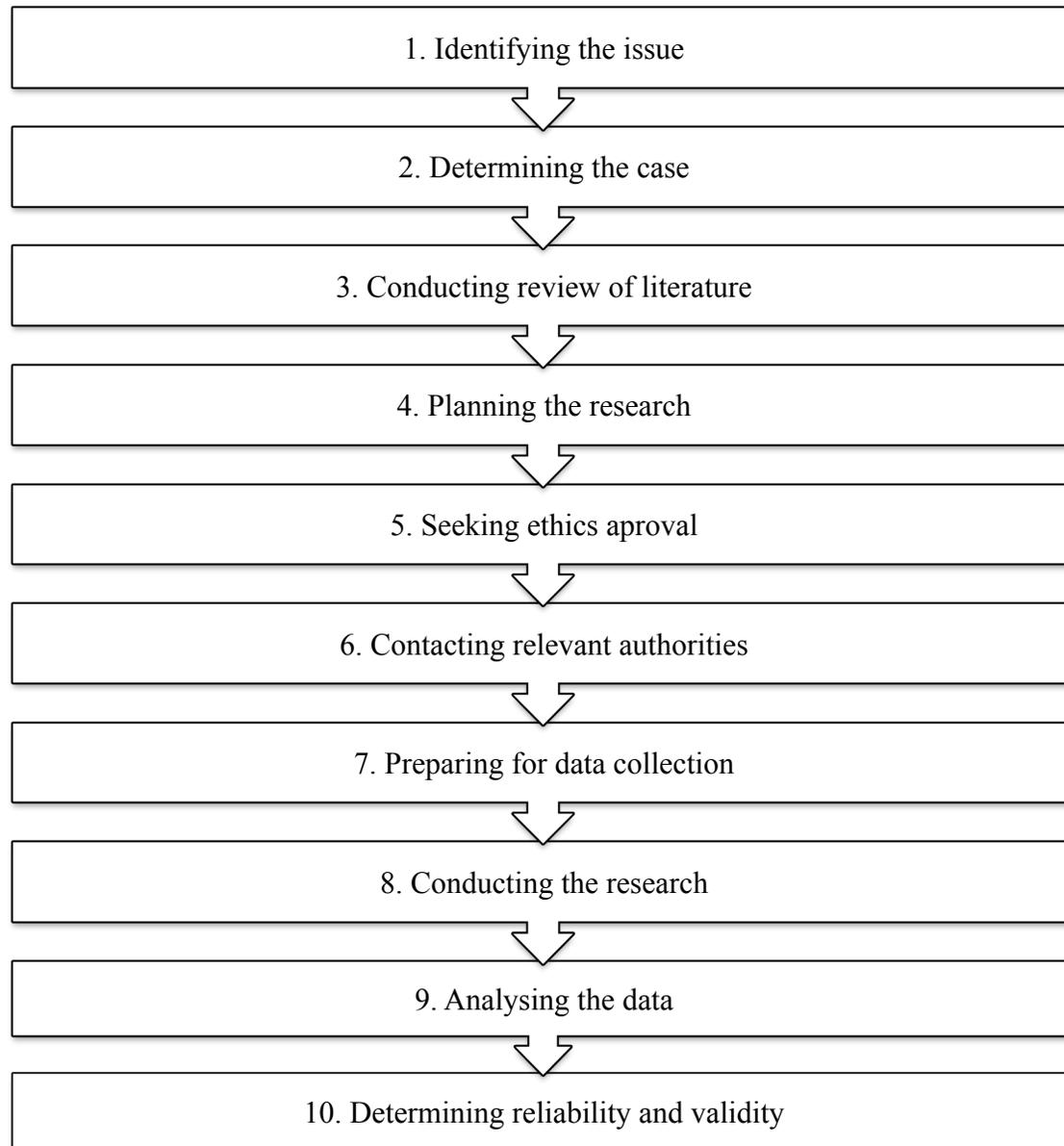


Figure 5. The research process.

3.6.1 Identifying the issue.

Identifying the issue was the first step of the process. According to Bryman (2012), personal experience can be a stimulus for research as it was in this case. My personal experience was based on my time teaching academic writing in the EAW

course at CELPAD. There were some problems as some of the students found it hard to relate to what I was teaching. Throughout my time teaching, I shared the problems with the EAW coordinator, EAW lecturers, CELPAD students, faculty lecturers, as well as the senior management in CELPAD. So, at that time I already established some ideas on possible topics for my research.

3.6.2 Determining the case.

My experience while teaching in CELPAD had prompted me to focus on academic writing to develop several questions. Some of the questions were concerning the lecturers' and students' understanding of academic writing and academic writing needs, and whether the needs could be met with one writing course. After consulting my research supervisors, I decided to look at academic writing from the perspective of student needs. This is where I moved from identifying the issue to determining the case for my study. I decided then that I would do case study research on academic writing in IIUM. From there, I realised the importance for this research to involve the writing course provider, the faculties, as well as the students since they were the stakeholders with presumably the best knowledge of what was needed to further improve the writing course to meet the students' writing needs. Even though I had not taught the course since 2012, the questions and my interest in the issue were still there, and I was determined to get the answers. Constant communication with the language lecturers and the coordinator of the EAW course had indicated to me that the situation was still the same when I began to conduct the study.

3.6.3 Conducting review of literature.

In the third step of the process, conducting a review of literature, I started to do more reading and reviewing of several journal articles and books to familiarise myself with the topic. Research begins with a thorough literature review (Yin, 2014). In addition, Bryman (2012) points out that, "The existing literature represents an important element in all research" (p. 8). When we review the literature, it is important for us to be aware of the existing knowledge about a topic, the existing concepts and theories on the topic, the research methods associated with the topic, any controversial issues about the

topic, any conflicting evidence and the key contributors to research in the topic (Bryman, 2012). From my reading, I managed to get a sense of how academic writing in EAP was investigated using needs analysis. I also came across controversies in EAP which are related to needs analysis. These subjects are: the two approaches to EAP – EGAP and ESAP; the approaches in the teaching of student writing – the study skills, academic socialisation and academic literacies models; and the pragmatic and critical perspectives on EAP. I also chose to apply the principles of the critical EAP approach in my research to elicit underlying elements of power relations from the stakeholders' perceptions of academic writing and student needs in IIUM.

3.6.4 Planning the research.

The next step was planning the research. This involved preparing a sound proposal of the steps to conduct the research. It involved deciding on the purpose of my study, the research questions, the research design, the participants, the instruments, the data collection procedures, the methods of analysis and the format of the research report. However, they were still considered a working proposal or work in progress, so changes were still made throughout the research process until the final step. Planning the research also involved developing my research instruments for the actual research. There were two instruments that I developed for my study: the questionnaire and the interview. The instruments underwent a series of revisions with the help of my supervisor in order to ensure their quality. In addition, I also had to conduct a pilot study to test each instrument. Apart from the two instruments, I also regarded myself as the primary instrument in collecting qualitative data (Merriam, 1998). According to Merriam (1998), in gathering and analysing qualitative data, a researcher can maximise the opportunities to collect and produce meaningful information. However, the researcher has to be able to tolerate the complexity of the research process, be sensitive to the surroundings and communicate well, especially with the respondents.

The following subsections will discuss the two instruments (the questionnaire and the interview) in detail.

3.6.4.1 Questionnaire.

Questionnaires can be defined as “any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or by selecting from among existing answers” (Brown, 2001, p. 6, as cited in Dörnyei, 2007, p. 102). They may consist of factual questions, behavioral questions or attitudinal questions (Dörnyei, 2007). For this study, the questionnaire was to investigate the respondents’ attitudes towards the importance of academic writing skills in the EAW course (all participants) and the respondents’ perceptions of the EAW course (EAW lecturers and all students). It was meant to complement the findings from the interview data. Before the items were developed, I consulted my supervisor on the items that I would include in the questionnaire. It was a bit challenging as three different sets of questionnaires had to be developed: one for the students (see Appendix C), one for the EAW lecturers (see Appendix D), and one for the faculty lecturers (see Appendix E).

The questionnaire type was the self-completion questionnaire, where the respondents completed the questionnaire themselves. It was administered by asking the respondents to visit a website and answer the questionnaire online (Bryman, 2012). The website used to test the questionnaire was SurveyGizmo. The website allowed me to create the questionnaire on its website, and generated a URL or a link for the respondents to answer it. The questionnaire was then administered with the help from the EAW course coordinator. The EAW course had a Moodle-based online learning platform which every EAW lecturer shared with their students only. Therefore, the EAW course coordinator made a request to all EAW lecturers to publish the URL and ask their students to answer the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was piloted for students on 13 March 2015. The respondents of the pilot study were a group of 23 undergraduate students from the Department of Languages and Management, IIUM (it was a new department then and none of the students had taken EAW). With the help of their English lecturer, a session for them to complete the online questionnaire was conducted via video conferencing. The students were asked to respond to each item, and take notes on the interface, format, number of questions, question types and the language used. After the session, a

discussion was done to get their feedback. Generally, they agreed that the questionnaire was appropriate and easy to complete. The pilot study for the lecturers, however, was not done in a single session, as it was hard to gather them at one specific time. I managed to contact 13 English lecturers from the Department of Languages and Management (six of them had taught EAW when they were in CELPAD before they moved to the new department) to answer the questionnaire for EAW lecturers. I also managed to get 11 lecturers from the education faculty to do the questionnaire for faculty lecturers. They were all given the URL to the questionnaire, and were asked to give their feedback. All of them were generally satisfied with the questionnaire. The only thing that they highlighted was the possibility of the students not getting access to the internet or to a proper computer to answer the questionnaire.

Validity and reliability are two important things that need to be considered when using questionnaires. All three questionnaires were revised with the help of my supervisor and two PhD English students before they were piloted to achieve face validity. Bryman (2012) mentions that face validity is to indicate that the items in the questionnaire reflect “the content of the concept in question” (p. 171). In addition, Cronbach’s alpha levels of the questionnaires were 0.837 for the student questionnaires, 0.757 for the EAW lecturer questionnaires, and 0.727 for the faculty lecturer questionnaires. According to Bryman (2012), alpha 0.80 typically shows an acceptable level of internal reliability, while 0.70 is considered satisfactory. Therefore, the alpha levels of all three questionnaires indicated some level of internal reliability of the questionnaire items.

Except for the section on background or demographic information, the questionnaires used closed-ended items, featuring the Likert scale. It is considered the most widely used type of format for close-ended items in questionnaires (Dörnyei, 2007). The items consist of attitudinal statements and the respondents were asked to choose an option to represent the extent of their agreement or disagreement with the statements. The options or responses usually range from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’ (Dörnyei, 2007). An example of how the type of question featured in this case study is shown below:

1) The objectives of EAW are clear.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly Agree

Some of the questionnaire items were based on the EAW course outline to examine how the course objectives were perceived by the students and EAW lecturers. For example, the item:

2) It is important for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs to know how to cite academic sources.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly Agree

was adapted from this learning objective:

The objectives of this course are to produce students who can use appropriate techniques in citing sources.

In addition to Likert scale questions, the questionnaire also has some open-ended questions, which gave the freedom to the respondents to give their opinion on certain questions if they wanted to. An example of an open-ended question is as follows:

40) Please write your opinion/comments on EAW in the box below, if you have any.

Finally, all the responses from the respondents were categorised by SurveyGizmo as having either 'Complete' or 'Partial' status. 'Complete' status means that the respondent has reached the 'Thank You' page or the last page of the questionnaire. On the other hand, 'Partial' status means that the respondent clicked the 'Next button' on at least the first page but has not yet reached the 'Thank You' page. For the purpose of analysis, only responses with 'Complete' status were selected. Even so, some 'Complete' questionnaires still had some unanswered items, but the rate was only 10% or less. The 'Partial' ones, on the other hand, mostly had only the

demographic data filled out. Therefore, only the responses with the ‘Complete’ status were selected. This is also to ensure that the response rate was correctly reported.

The administration of the questionnaire was done on 16 March 2015. The questionnaire was to gather information on the respondents’ perceptions of academic writing and the students’ and EAW lecturers’ attitudes towards the EAW course. The questionnaire had a short introduction stating the purpose of the study and the confidentiality of the participants’ responses, anonymity of their identities and also their rights to not answer the questionnaire.

The questionnaire items were organised in several sections. Since there were three questionnaires, some sections were in all three, and some were not. The sections in the questionnaire are presented in Table 6:

Table 6. *Questionnaire Sections*

Sections	Student questionnaire	EAW lecturer questionnaire	Faculty lecturer questionnaire
Background information	√	√	√
Linguistic information	√		
Perceptions of EAW	√	√	
Perceptions of EAW students		√	
Perceptions of academic writing	√	√	√

It can be seen from Table 6 that only two sections were included in all three questionnaires: the sections on ‘background information’ and ‘perceptions of academic writing’. However, the section on ‘perceptions of EAW’ was only in the student questionnaire and EAW lecturer questionnaire. This is because the faculty lecturers were not involved in the EAW course.

Regarding the student questionnaire, the final analysis was only done on the faculties selected for the case study. The questionnaire was administered to all students who were taking EAW in that semester. However, the faculties were only selected after the interviews with the EAW lecturers. The administration of the student questionnaire

had to be conducted early as the total number of students was 1228. It was administered online two weeks before the interviews.

3.6.4.1.1 The demographic data.

The demographic results presented here are from all the students who completed the questionnaire. According to Bryman (2012), the response rate is the percentage of a sample that agreed to participate or in other words, the usable questionnaires. Usually, not all questionnaires are suitable or appropriate. The calculation to get the response rate is:

$$\frac{\text{Number of usable questionnaires}}{\text{total sample} - \text{unsuitable questionnaires}} \times 100$$

The total number of 'Complete' questionnaires was 213, and the total number of 'Partial' questionnaire was 119. Therefore, following this calculation, the response rate of my questionnaires is 19.20%. It was rather disappointing as the response rate was considered low even though the students were given six months to answer the questionnaire. A few measures were also put in place as follow-ups to ensure more participation. Other than asking the EAW coordinator to remind the lecturers to encourage their students, the URL was also published on the IIUM students' Facebook group called 'IIUM online'. This Facebook group was the biggest online group of IIUM students and staff. However, the response rate remained low.

The demographic data were presented in pie charts that show the percentages of students' age, gender, nationality, ethnicity, faculty, year of study and English language qualifications. Pie charts are a type of diagram to present quantitative data, especially the nominal or ordinal variables, in the easiest way for people to understand (Bryman, 2012).

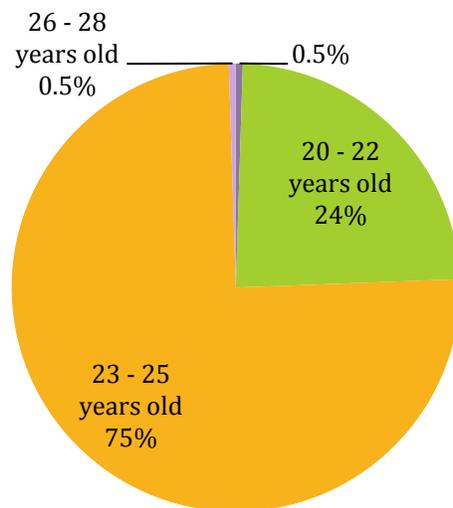


Figure 6. Students' age

It can be seen from Figure 6 that 75% of the students were between 23 to 25 years old. This indicates that the majority of the respondents were in the average age range of students in their final year.

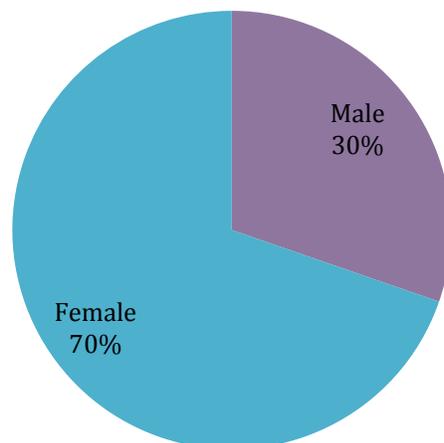


Figure 7. Students' gender

Figure 7 shows that the majority of the respondents (70%) were female.

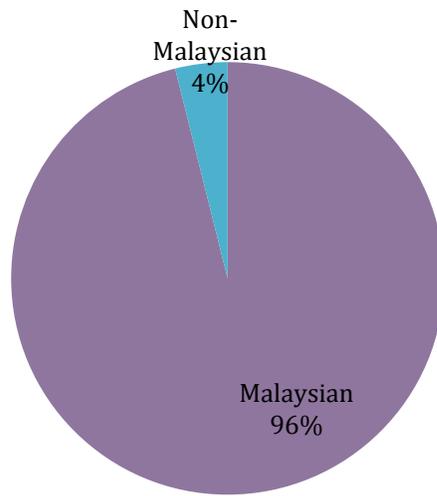


Figure 8. Students' nationality

In Figure 8, we can see that 96% of students who completed the questionnaires were Malaysians. The remaining 4% represent students who were non-Malaysians.

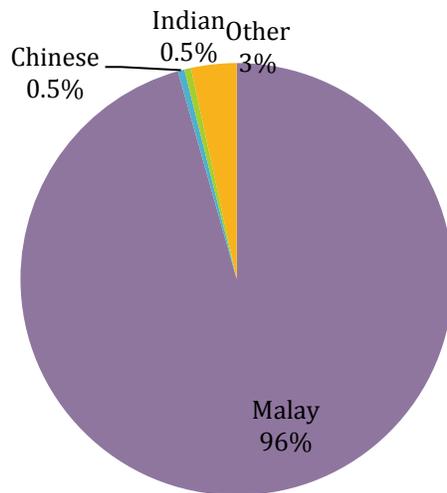


Figure 9. Students' ethnicity

Figure 9 indicates that most respondents (96%) were Malay.

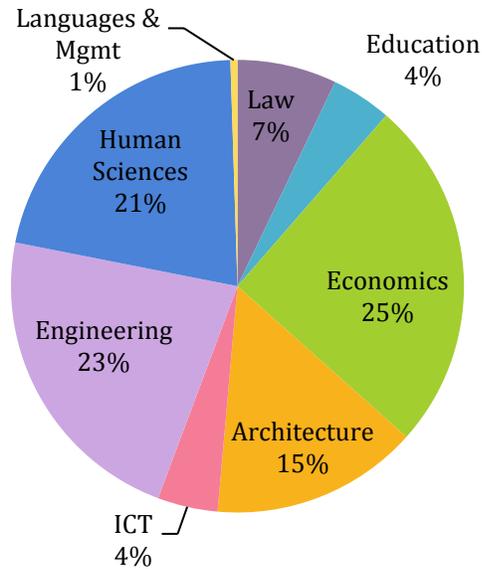


Figure 10. Students' faculty

It can be seen from Figure 10 that most of respondents were from the engineering (23%) and human sciences (21%) faculties. Languages and Management had the lowest percentage of students with only 1%. This is possibly due to the fact that the faculty was new and the number of students in the faculty was small.

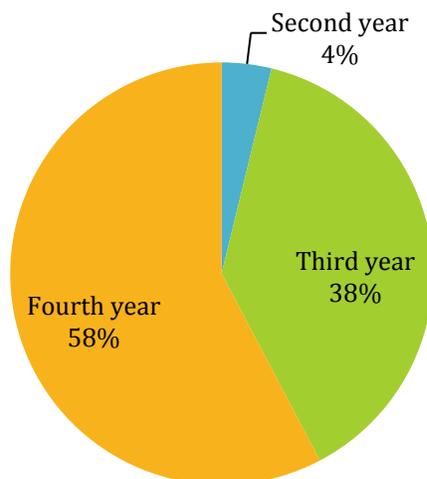


Figure 11. Students' year of study

Figure 11 shows that more than half (58%) of the respondents were in their fourth year, which was the final year of their study. Surprisingly, there were 4% of the respondents who were in their second year. Usually, the EAW course was only taken by the third or fourth year students.

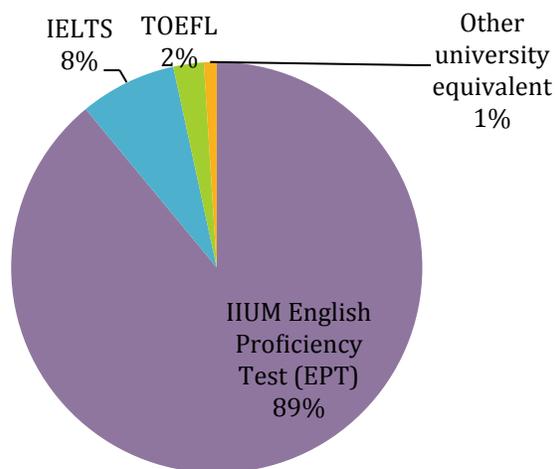


Figure 12. Students' English qualifications

Figure 12 indicates that most students (89%) entered the university after taking the university's own proficiency test, the IIUM English Proficiency Test or EPT. IELTS was the second most common test taken by the respondents, with 8% of them taking the test.

3.6.4.2 Interview.

Semi-structured interviews were used to collect qualitative data. A semi-structured interview has an open-ended format where the interviewer's role is to guide the interviewee for responses and prompt them for elaboration on certain topics (Dörnyei, 2007). Additionally, the interviewee also has the flexibility in how to reply to the questions (Bryman, 2012). In a semi-structured interview, the interviewer may ask the same questions to all participants but the questions do not have to be in the same order or wording (Dörnyei, 2007). Semi-structured interviews were chosen for the present study as they were suitable for situations where the interviewer is familiar with

the phenomenon being investigated; the interviewer can ask broad questions about the topic instead of ready-made response categories “that would limit the depth and breadth of the respondent’s story” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 136).

In addition, my interview also integrated the retrospective or stimulated recall techniques (Dörnyei, 2007). Dörnyei as well as Greene and Higgins (1994) used the term ‘retrospective’ and ‘stimulated recall’ interchangeably to refer to a situation where respondents give their responses after getting some sort of stimulus to retrieve their relevant thoughts. For example, in retrospective accounts, the interviewer may show a person’s written work during the interview (Dörnyei, 2007; Greene & Higgins, 1994) to be used as stimulus for the person to retrieve the needed information.

In relation to my study, I began by preparing three sets of interview questions for the students, EAW lecturers and the faculty lecturers. The students’ set and the EAW lecturers’ set comprised questions on academic writing and the EAW course, while the set for faculty lecturers had questions on academic writing only (see Appendices F, G and H). For all sets, there was one section where the participant was asked to look at a piece of written work (lecturers would have their students’ project papers or assignments, and students would have their own written work) during the interview. Using the written work as stimulus, I then asked the participants to answer some questions with the help of the stimulus to recall the relevant information. An example of these questions can be seen below:

15. Looking at your written work (and your lecturers’ comments), can you please explain which area, in relation to academic writing, you need to improve to make it better?

To answer this question, the participants had to go through the written materials to give their answers (samples of students’ written work are in Appendices K, L, M, N, O, and P). For example, if the interview was with a student and the written material had the lecturers’ annotations or comments on certain writing mistakes, the student could relate that to something that he or she needed to improve.

All three sets of interview questions were reviewed by my supervisor and an English teacher. After some changes, I piloted my interview questions to ensure that they were easily understood and appropriate to be asked during the interview. The interviews were conducted with five students and three lecturers from the Department of Languages and Management. All the students had taken the EAW course before, and the three lecturers also had taught EAW. Additionally, two lecturers from the education faculty were interviewed to pilot the questions for the faculty lecturers. From the pilot interviews, several changes were made based on their feedback.

Using purposive sampling, I used the reputational case selection (Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2014) to choose the participants. Reputational case selection is when the participants were “chosen on the recommendation of an expert or key participant” (Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2014, p. 32). The first sample was the EAW lecturers. Firstly, I began by contacting the EAW course coordinator. I regarded the EAW course coordinator as the key participant as she had a vast knowledge of the EAW course and the lecturers teaching the course. A meeting was held on 02 April 2015 in CELPAD to explain the intention to recruit EAW lecturers for the study and the selection criteria. The criteria were: (1) the EAW lecturers had to be teaching EAW in CELPAD; and (2) the EAW lecturers were of three levels of experience – those who had some experience (three years or less), those who were experienced (more than three years of experience), and those who were the experts in teaching the course (more than ten years of experience). The second criterion was regarded as the most important as the lecturers’ experience played a role in shaping their perceptions of academic writing and student needs. Additionally, I also asked the EAW course coordinator to be one of the participants, as I believed she could be a valuable source of information. I was then given 10 lecturers’ names for each level of experience. The total number of the EAW lecturers for that semester – Semester 2, academic year 2014/2015 – was 62.

Out of 30 lecturers, 15 lecturers were willing to be the interview participants. One of them used to be the course coordinator during the early years of EAP and EAW in CELPAD so I believed she would have valuable insights to offer. Table 7 summarises the participants according to their levels of experience.

Table 7. *Interview Participants: EAW Lecturers*

No	Lecturer/code	Gender	Qualification	Level of Experience	
1	LEAW4	Male	First degree	1.5 years	Some experience
2	LEAW15	Female	First degree	2 years	
3	LEAW8	Female	First degree	3 years	
4	LEAW7	Male	First degree	4 years	Experienced
5	LEAW9	Female	First degree	4 years	
6	LEAW13	Female	Master's degree	4 years	
7	LEAW14	Female	Master's degree	4 years	
8	LEAW1	Female	First degree	5 years	
9	LEAW10	Female	First degree	8 years	
10	LEAW11	Female	Master's degree	10 years	Experts
11	LEAW2	Female	Master's degree	More than 10 years	
12	LEAW12	Female	Master's degree	12 years	
13	LEAW5	Female	Master's degree	13 years	
14	LEAW6	Female	First degree	More than 15 years	
15	LEAW3	Female	Master's degree	16 years	

It can be seen from Table 7 that there was almost a balanced number of participants based on their levels of experience. Three lecturers were categorised as having 'some experience' as they had been teaching EAW for three years or less. One lecturer had three years of experience, one had two years of experience, and one had only taught EAW for one and a half years. Additionally, six lecturers were categorised as 'experienced'. Four of them had been teaching EAW for four years, one had five years of experience and one had eight years of experience. The last category was the most experienced ones, which I referred to as 'experts' in teaching EAW. Having taught longer than the others, some of them could not remember exactly how long they had been teaching EAW. One lecturer had 10 years of experience and another was not sure of the exact number but she knew it had been more than 10 years. Additionally, one lecturer had 12 years of experience, and another had taught EAW for 13 years. Again,

there was another who was not so sure of the number of years that she had spent teaching EAW, but she remembered it had been more than 15 years. Finally, one lecturer had 16 years of experience teaching EAW in CELPAD.

The interviews were carried out after setting the date, time and venue with the selected EAW lecturers. Interviews with the EAW lecturers had two purposes: (1) as part of the main data collection process to answer the research questions; and (2) to identify the faculties to be selected as subunits of analysis for the case study. The second issue was pressing, as I needed to start contacting selected faculties. One of the questions that was asked was whether they had any preferred faculty to teach, or any difficulty teaching a particular faculty. The following are two examples of their responses:

- It's difficult to teach the Engineering kulliyyah (faculty). Because for one thing, their kind of research is different from ours. (LEAW13, Lines 42 – 43).
- HS, for example, they have better grasp of the language (LEAW7, Lines 34 – 35).

The results revealed that the majority of EAW lecturers found teaching engineering and architecture students more difficult than others. On the other hand, the majority of them found teaching human sciences and law students easier than others.

Armed with this information, I went to see the deputy deans of the four faculties to seek their assistance. I managed to see the deputy deans from all three faculties except for the law faculty. I was then introduced to the academic advisors for their assistance to recruit the interview participants. There was only one criterion for selection – they must be the lecturers of courses which mostly required students to produce written projects or assignments. Finally, only three lecturers from engineering and four lecturers from human sciences were willing to be interviewed. One lecturer from architecture also responded positively, but since she was the only one from architecture, I decided not to include her in the study. None from the law faculty was

available, although there was one who replied my email to apologise for not being able to participate.

Therefore, I chose the engineering faculty and the human sciences faculty. Table 8 and Table 9 contain the information on the faculty lecturers who were selected as participants.

Table 8. *Interview Participants: ENGIN Lecturers*

No	Lecturer/Code	Gender	Qualification	Department
1	LENG1	Female	PhD	Manufacturing Engineering
2	LENG2	Female	PhD	Mechatronics Engineering
3	LENG3	Female	PhD	Biotechnology Engineering

Table 9. *Interview Participants: HS Lecturers*

No	Lecturer/Code	Gender	Qualification	Department
1	LHS1	Female	PhD	English Language and Literature
2	LHS2	Female	PhD	Psychology
3	LHS3	Female	PhD	English Language and Literature
4	LHS4	Female	PhD	Sociology and Anthropology

Next, the EAW coordinator was consulted again to select the students. There were two criteria in choosing the EAW students. First, the students were either from the engineering or human sciences faculties. The second criterion was to choose students who had been performing well in the course and students who were not doing so well. The reason for the second criterion was to get the perspectives from two different kinds of students. After receiving a list of names to be contacted, I managed to set appointments for interviews with four EAW students from engineering and four EAW students from human sciences. Table 10 and Table 11 depict the information on the EAW students who were selected as my participants.

Table 10. *Interview Participants: EAW/ENGIN Students*

No	Student/Code	Gender	Year of study	Programme
1	SENG1	Male	Fourth	Mechanical Automotive
2	SENG2	Female	Fourth	Biotech Engineering
3	SENG3	Female	Fourth	Electronic-Computer and IT
4	SENG4	Male	Fourth	Chemical Biotechnology Engineering

Table 11. *Interview Participants: EAW/HS Students*

No	Student/Code	Gender	Year of study	Programme
1	SHS1	Female	Fourth	Psychology
2	SHS2	Male	Fourth	Sociology and Anthropology
3	SHS3	Female	Fourth	English Language and Literature
4	SHS4	Female	Fourth	Sociology and Anthropology

Having a specific procedure is important in conducting an interview, and one of the ways of doing so is by developing an interview protocol (Creswell, 2014). The interview protocol for my interviews was as follows:

- Record the date, time and venue of the interview with each participant.
- Give the consent form (see Appendix I) and the participant information sheet (see Appendix J) to be filled out and signed by the participant (for ethics purposes).
- Explain about the process of the interview (e.g., the participant is free to talk in a casual manner as it is a semi-structured interview, consideration of relevant safety measures in the event of unplanned incidents, etc.).

- Ask the participant for the requested materials (the participant was asked in advance to bring any written work such as assignments or project papers for the retrospective/stimulated recall part in the interview).
- Remind the participant that the interview will be recorded and allow the participant to decide if he or she does not want to proceed with the recording (the participant was told in advance that the interview would be audio recorded).
- Ask some ice-breaking questions before the recording begins to create a casual and comfortable environment for the interview.
- Begin the interview by mentioning the participant's name (with the participant's consent for my record and reference only), date and time.
- Proceed with the interview questions.
- Allow ample time for the participant to respond.
- Prompt for more information whenever necessary.
- Ask for clarifications whenever necessary.
- Avoid or minimise interruptions during the participant's speech.
- Write down anything only if it is really important.
- Thank the participant when the interview is over.
- Keep a record of any materials given by the participant.

Overall, it took me three weeks to do all the interviews. Each interview took about 20 minutes. The process of transcribing and analysing the interviews is discussed in subsection 3.6.9.2.

3.6.5 Seeking ethics approval.

As part of the university requirements for students at the University of Sheffield, I applied for ethics approval from the university before I began the actual research work (i.e. the data collection procedures). The ethics committee are formed to protect research participants and the institutions from unethical behavior by researchers (Bryman, 2012). Therefore, prior to collecting the data, an ethics application form was submitted online to the University of Sheffield on 17 November 2014 to be reviewed by the university ethics reviewers. The first result which was obtained on 1 February 2015

required another application with some additional documents. The documents were the interview consent form (see Appendix I) and the participant information sheet (see Appendix J). Therefore, on 17 February 2015, the second application form was submitted together with the required forms. The ethics approval was finally obtained on 24 February 2015. Other than getting ethics approval to conduct the research, I also had to make sure that all the ethical considerations were taken into account during the research process. Since I conducted my study at the university where I taught, there were participants whom I was familiar with. One benefit of being an ‘insider’ is that you get easily accepted into the community (Dwyer & Bukle, 2009). Therefore, I had to make sure that I kept a distance from the participants during the data collection process (Kanuha, 2000) to make sure I did not unduly influence them.

3.6.6 Contacting relevant authorities.

The sixth step was contacting relevant authorities to seek permission to collect data for my study. The most important parties were the language centre (CELPAD) and the faculties at IIUM. On 21 November 2014, I contacted the deans and deputy deans of all faculties and the language centre via emails to inform them of my intention to involve lecturers and students at their respective faculties in my study.

3.6.7 Preparing for data collection.

The preparation for the data collection involved distributing the URL for the questionnaires and setting the dates, time and venues for the interviews. Since the interview was going to be audio-recorded, I had brought a new voice recorder with spare batteries (although I had an alternative of using my phone to record, I preferred not to use it to avoid distractions from incoming calls). I also prepared a notepad and a few pens for taking down any important notes during the interview (I tried to minimise doing this as it might have affected my concentration and the flow of the interview).

3.6.8 Conducting the research.

The process that took place during this stage is illustrated in Figure 13.

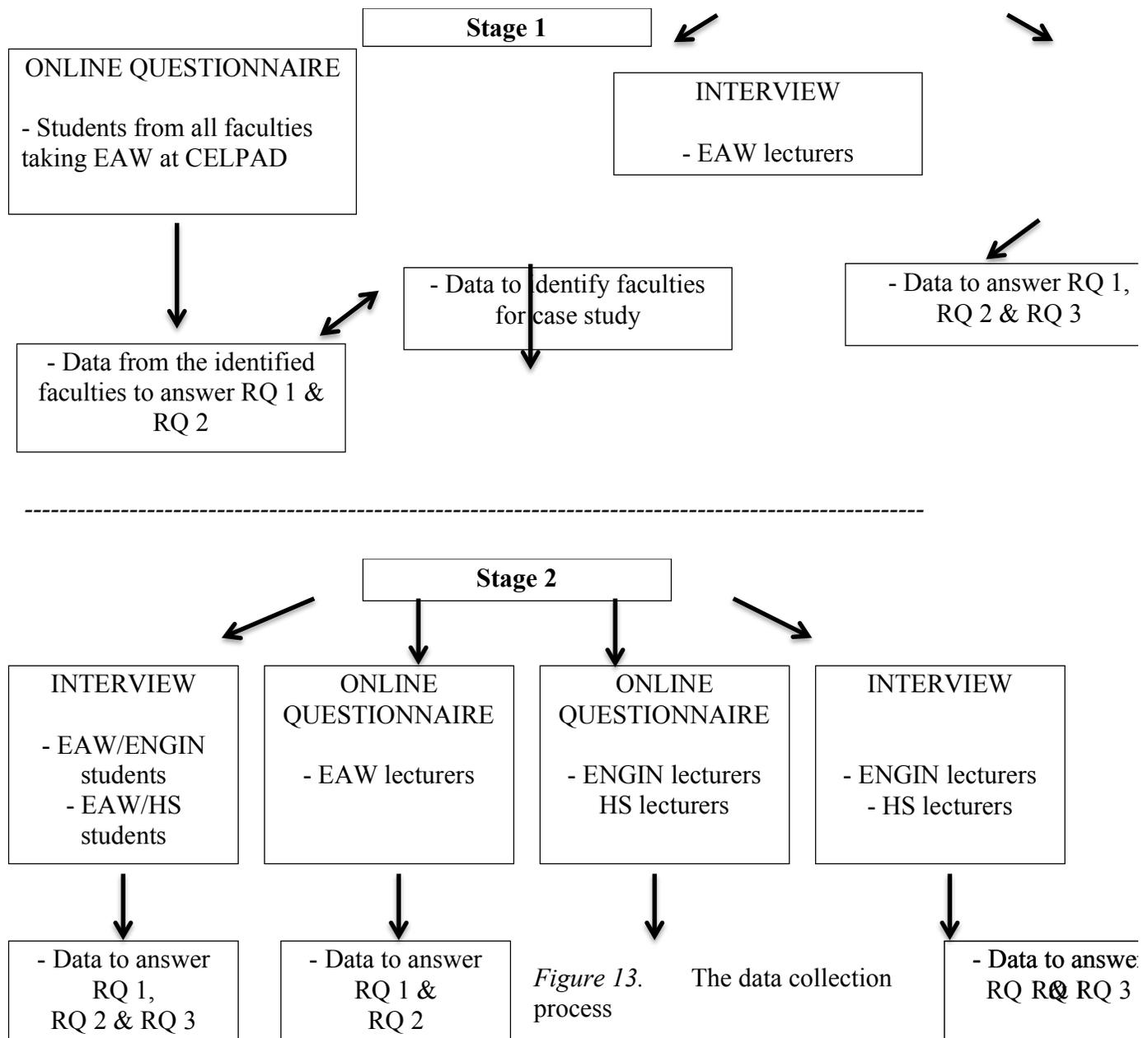


Figure 13. The data collection process

As can be seen in Figure 13, there were two types of data collection in the first stage, and they were conducted simultaneously. At this stage, the faculties for the case study had not been identified. Therefore, the questionnaires for students were administered online to all undergraduate students who were taking EAW in CELPAD in Semester 2,

academic year 2014/2015. At the same time, the interviews with the EAW lecturers were carried out.

The second stage involved the faculties which had been identified for the case study. Interviews were done with the engineering (ENGIN) lecturers and human sciences (HS) lecturers, as well as engineering students who were taking EAW (EAW/ENGIN students) and human sciences students who were taking EAW (EAW/HS students). Furthermore, online questionnaires were also administered to EAW lecturers, ENGIN lecturers and HS lecturers. The questionnaires were administered via email, where I emailed the questionnaire URL to all EAW, ENGIN and HS lecturers.

3.6.9 Analysing the data.

Two research instruments were used in the case study: the questionnaire and the interview. The first subsection describes the analysis of the questionnaire and the second subsection will be on analysing the interview.

3.6.9.1 Analysing the questionnaires.

The questionnaire was analysed by calculating the frequencies and percentages of each response. This is one of the methods in descriptive statistics, where numerical data are summarised (Dörnyei, 2007) to examine frequencies (Brown, 2001). For the questionnaire in this study, frequencies were calculated by counting the number of responses for each attitude (strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree, strongly agree). Frequencies could also be converted to percentages by dividing the total number in one category by the total number in all categories (Dörnyei, 2007). For example, if the number of responses which agreed with one item was 13, and the total number of all responses to the same item was 26, the percentage of the frequency was 50%.

The presentation of the results was done in cross-tabulation tables or crosstab with the frequency distribution and percentages to jointly display the data. The calculation of frequencies and percentages was done by SurveyGizmo and exported to Excel file. The data presentation in Excel was edited using crosstab before being converted to the Microsoft Word file. The use of crosstab enables the data to be

compared; however, it does not give a causal relationship between them (Bryman, 2012). The use of crosstab was simply to examine trends and patterns in the data. The percentages or the frequencies of the responses to the same question by the respondents, for example students and EAW lecturers, were compared just to see whether the trend between the two groups was similar or different. Therefore, if the questions or items were included in the questionnaires of all subunits of analysis – the engineering students, the human sciences students, the EAW lecturers, the engineering lecturers and human sciences lecturers – I could have all the responses in the same crosstab and easily compare whether the frequencies or percentages among the five subunits of analysis groups were similar or different.

The presentation of results began with the demographic data. Here, crosstabs containing more than one subunit of analysis in the rows were used only if there was any similar information that at least two of the groups shared. For example, the information on ‘year of study’ was only shared by the engineering and human sciences students. Therefore, this information was presented in a crosstab comparing the year of study of the two subunits of analysis. I would then be able to compare not just the ‘year of study’ among the engineering students, but also compare the data with the ‘year of study’ of the human sciences students. However, the information on ‘years of teaching experience in CELPAD’ only referred to the EAW lecturers. Therefore, the crosstab only showed the ‘years of teaching experience’ in the column, and I only compared the ‘years of teaching experience in CELPAD’ among the EAW lecturers.

Next, the results were presented according to the research questions. The first research question was, ‘What are the EAW lecturers’, the faculty lecturers’, and students’ perceptions of academic writing needs?’ For this research question, the results containing the questionnaire data on the perceptions on the importance of writing to students were presented. This presentation included all subunits of analysis. The second research question was ‘What are the EAW lecturers’ and the EAW/ENGIN and the EAW/HS students’ perceptions of the EAW course?’ For this research question, the results comprising the questionnaire data on the perceptions of the EAW course were presented. Since the research question was only related to the EAW lecturers and the students, the results only represented the EAW lecturers, the EAW/ENGIN students and

the EAW/HS students. The results were then compared with the findings from the interviews to see whether there were similarities, differences or additional information that complemented the findings of the interviews.

3.6.9.2 Analysing the interviews.

The process of analysing the interviews involved transcribing, coding and assigning themes. I will explain about each stage in the subsections that follow.

3.6.9.2.1 Transcribing.

The first step in analysing the interviews was transcribing the recorded interviews. According to Brown (2001), transcribing is “making a copy, arrangement, or record of the data with the purpose of reducing the data to a form that can easily be stored, accessed, sorted, and analyzed” (p. 215). It is a time-consuming process, and it can take at least five hours to transcribe a one-hour interview (Bryman, 2012; Dörnyei, 2007). Cleaning up the interview data or doing a partial transcription may reduce this problem, but a full transcription is always encouraged as accurate records can be very important to conduct a thorough qualitative investigation (Brown, 2001; Dörnyei, 2007).

For the purpose of my case study, I did a full transcription of all the interviews (see Appendices Q, R, S). Altogether, I had 30 interviews (15 with EAW lecturers, seven with faculty lecturers and eight with students). All the interviews were recorded using an audio recorder which had a built-in memory to save the recordings in an MP3 audio file format. I considered the recorder as fit for purpose with regard to its quality of recording because the device’s function was specifically made to record only. To transcribe the interviews, firstly, I transferred the recordings to my computer. Then, I used transcription software called Wreally which allowed me to download each recording and type the interviews into a designated space in the software. The software had the functions to play, pause, stop, rewind, forward and slow the recording speed down, which was useful when I needed to understand certain unclear words. To facilitate the transcribing process, I used a foot pedal which I used mostly to pause and play the recordings as I was typing. The average duration of each interview was 20

minutes, taking an average of three to four hours to transcribe. Some interviews took longer than others depending on the voice quality of the participants.

In the transcription, each participant was assigned with a code (see Tables 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11). Their names were not used to maintain confidentiality. The code only identified them by their status (L = Lecturer; S = Student), and their course or faculty (EAW = English for Academic Writing; ENG = Engineering; HS = Human Sciences). Each code had a number to differentiate the participants. For example, a participant coded as LEAW1 was an EAW lecturer, LENG1 was an engineering lecturer, LHS1 was a human sciences lecturer, SHS1 was a human sciences student, and SENG1 was an engineering student. Each transcript was labelled with the participant's code. However, to mark the speakers in the transcripts, their initials were used to associate their true identities with the interviews. For example, if the person's name was Ken Hyland, the initials 'KH' were used. I as the interviewer was referred to as 'I' in the transcript.

According to Dörnyei (2007), there are no fixed transcription conventions. I began the transcription by typing the title, date and length of the interview. Then, the interview was typed word for word. (For referencing, I numbered every line from the heading to the last line of the transcript, but this was done later in the Microsoft Word document as it had a special feature to do so). Standard orthography was used as much as possible for ease of readability (Dörnyei, 2007), but I also used features like three dots to indicate a pause, a square bracket to indicate an action, and a parenthesis to indicate an overlap in speech between the participant and the interviewer. Below is an excerpt from a transcript to show how it was done:

- 66 I: Okay. Do you know about ESAP and EGAP?
- 67 AA: Err...[laughed] can you clarify that?
- 68 I: Okay. ESAP stands for English for Specific Academic Purposes, while EGAP stands 69
for English for General Academic Purposes. Okay. They both belong to the err...to 70
the EAP group... to the sort of subgroups of EAP. So, by that definition, does it 71
give some ideas to you what ESAP and EGAP are?

- 71 AA: Err... I would imagine ESAP would be very customised to a particular group of 72 students or pupils, and EGAP would be more for the general students, perhaps, yea?
- 73 I: Yes...yes.
- 74 AA: Ah... okay. So, I'm right there?
- 75 I: Yea. okay. So, in your opinion, is CELPAD's EAW an ESAP or EGAP course?
- 76 AA: I think it's the second one (EGAP).
- 77 I: EGAP?

In the excerpt, ‘...’ and ‘[laughed]’ in line 67 show that there was a pause and the participant laughed after she paused, and ‘(EGAP)’ in line 76 and ‘EGAP’ in line 77 show that both the participant and the interviewer were speaking at the same time. It is also important to note that, even though I allowed the participants to code-switch or code-mix during the interviews, most of them used only English, except for one lecturer and one student who sometimes used Malay words. In the transcripts, the Malay words were italicised and translated to English. The following are the examples:

- Thesis statement. This one. Another one as I mentioned earlier the technical..things. This one *memang* [translated - surely] every single semester...quotation, page number..err..this one is very common. So there is the second issues..[still flipping through the student's assignment] how to cite references... (LHS4, Lines 136 – 139).
- [Giggled] I don't know... *maybe kitorang punya term kot guna LOP*. [translated - maybe LOP is just our term for it] But for language, after EAW, we need to do LAP. Yea. So, that subject is already different based on the kulliyah. But I think maybe EAW should, should do like that. (SHS4, Lines 144 – 147).

The whole process of transcribing took me about three to four months. After the transcription process had been done, all the transcripts were copied and pasted into the Microsoft Word documents.

3.6.9.2.2 *Coding and assigning themes.*

The data were coded and analysed using the computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software or CAQDAS (Bryman, 2012; Dörnyei, 2007). The use of CAQDAS was to facilitate the process of coding and retrieving the data. It also helped in managing the research materials including interview transcripts, audio and video recordings, and notes. The software that was used was NVivo 11 where interview transcripts were uploaded for coding.

The approach used in coding the interview data was thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Bryman, 2012). According to Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic analysis is “a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (p. 79). Ryan and Bernard (2003, as cited in Bryman, 2012) have recommended the researcher to look at eight criteria when looking for themes: (1) repetitions; (2) indigenous typologies; (3) metaphors and analogies; (4) transitions; (5) similarities and differences; (6) linguistic connectors; (7) missing data; and (8) theory-related material. Of all eight criteria, they suggest that an emphasis on repetition has been “one of the most common criteria for establishing that a pattern within the data warrants being considered a theme” (p. 580). Braun and Clarke explain about two approaches to a thematic analysis. The first one is by applying an inductive approach, which is similar to grounded theory. In this approach, the identified themes are strongly based on the data; they have little association with the questions that the researchers used to ask the participants. The second approach is called the ‘theoretical’ thematic analysis. In this approach, the analysis follows the theoretical interest in the area. It is analyst-driven, and tends to produce a detailed description of some aspect of the data rather than the overall data. To relate the theoretical thematic analysis to its use in a case study, I compared this approach with one of the strategies of data analysis described by Yin (2014). Yin states that one strategy that can be used to analyse a case study is by following the theoretical propositions or the theoretical orientations that lead a researcher to conduct the case study.

The analysis of the interview data was conducted following Braun and Clarke’s (2006) thematic analysis approach. The first thing that I did was to familiarise myself

with the data. This was done by reading and rereading the transcripts to immerse myself in the meanings and patterns of the data. Next, the initial codes of the data were generated. Codes are features of the data that appear interesting to the researcher and can be ‘data-driven’ or ‘theory-driven’ (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The way I coded my data was more ‘theory-driven’ as I had specific questions in my mind when I approached the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Using NVivo, useful parts of the transcripts were highlighted. A ‘node’ was then assigned to the highlighted parts. The same ‘node’ was assigned to other parts that I found similar when I read through the rest of the transcripts. I also developed other ‘nodes’ for other meaningful data.

The next step was identifying themes. This process involved “sorting the different codes into potential themes, and collating all the relevant coded data extracts within the identified themes” (Braun & Clarke, 2006). An example of how this was done in my study is presented in Table 12. In the table, each data extract gave different reasons why the EAW course was needed by the students, but they all could be related to one key idea, which was ‘research’. The different codes/nodes contain the idea of ‘research’ for the reasons for the course. After categorising all of the codes/nodes that I could find, I ended up with the theme ‘The student need for EAW is due to their need to do research’ to represent the key idea in all the codes/nodes.

Table 12. *Assigning Codes/Nodes and Themes to Data Extracts*

Participant	Data extract	Codes / Nodes	Themes
LEAW1	we give the students to write for research, basically. So, they get familiar with all the terms in research writing, erm all the components, all the different types of chapters, the style of writing for each of the	Needed for students to continue doing research	The student need for EAW is due to their need to do research.

	chapters, so, it's pretty much, yea, I think it's relevant and students need this, especially if we want, we intend for them to continue this study, write papers, produce... and do their own research.		
LEAW10	first of all, I think most of the students here, they are required to write a final year project or research paper, in which, what I found is that, we have students who produce good projects. But it was written terribly. They don't know the proper key words, vocabulary, structure, so it was all over the place - based on what I have read; my students' work. So, I think, this course is very much relevant to what they are doing.	Needed as most students have to write research	
LEAW14	Academic writing... yes because we do expose them to research, don't we?	Needed for exposure to research	

After the themes had been developed, the next step was to review the themes. Braun and Clarke (2006) mention that some themes might not be themes, some themes might collapse into each other, and some themes might need to be broken down into separate themes. I compared the themes that I had developed and made some changes accordingly. The next step was to define and name the theme. What is important here is to make sure that the names are “concise, punchy, and immediately give the reader a sense of what the theme is about” (p. 93). The theme in Table 12 is an example of a theme which had gone through the reviewing process and was finally used to present my findings.

3.6.10 Determining reliability and validity

Reliability and validity are two very important goals of qualitative research (Brown, 2001; Creswell, 2014; Dörnyei, 2007) as well as quantitative research (Greene & McClintock, 1985; Yin, 2014; Serafini et al. 2015). Some important questions in qualitative research are whether the research has been done with reasonable care and whether the findings make sense and are credible (Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2014). In quantitative research, researchers are concerned with the concept of generalisability, as they attempt to make sure that their findings can be “generalized beyond the confines of the particular context in which the research was conducted” (Bryman, 2012, p. 176).

One way that can be used to achieve reliability and validity of qualitative research is by applying triangulation (Brown, 2001; Creswell, 2014). Brown states that

this can be done by using multiple sources to obtain the data, known as triangulation of data. Similarly, in the context of mixed-methods design, Greene and McClintock (1985), Yin (2014) and Serafini et al. (2015) point out the use of triangulation can achieve reliability and validity.

Triangulation of data has been practised by researchers in needs analysis. Serafini et al. (2015) have done a survey of methodological practice reported in needs analysis research for over 30 years (1984 – 2014). One of their main findings was that in needs analysis studies, “common standards for reliability and validity have yet to be established” (p. 24). They suggested that reliability and validity in needs analysis can be achieved by “triangulation of data obtained from the same source via different methods and using the same method to consult several sources (i.e., *source x method* interactions)” (p. 12). They categorised sources into two types: insider and outsider. For example, to identify the language needs of medical students, the sources for information should not just be the students, but the information should also come from the physicians (insider) and ESP instructors (outsider). Methods refer to qualitative and quantitative methods in research. Therefore, to achieve the best result, the sources should be investigated using two or more sources, both qualitative and quantitative. Relating this to my case study, I had taken the step to achieve validity and reliability of my research by using students, EAW lecturers and faculty lecturers as my sources of data, as well as interviews and questionnaires (qualitative and quantitative) methods to obtain the data.

In qualitative research, validity and reliability can also be achieved by conducting member checking (Brown, 2001; Creswell, 2014). This is done by letting the participants verify the accuracy of the data and the researcher’s interpretations of the data. In my case, I met with some of my participants during my second visit to the research site in August 2015 (my data collection was in April 2015) to discuss the interview data with them. However, I was not able to see all of them due to time constraints and other obstacles. Therefore, what I did was ask a peer who is an English teacher to check for accuracy of my transcription by letting her listen to the audio recording and compare it with the interview transcript.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter describes and discusses the methodological aspects of the present case study. It begins with a discussion of the issue, the theoretical underpinnings of the study and its relation to the methodology of this case study, and the research design. The description of the research site is also included. The final section on the research process discusses the specific steps that were taken in conducting the research.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with the presentations of the findings. Next, the second part of the chapter will discuss the findings. The data collection process for the case study was done in two stages, which has been explained in detail in Chapter Three. The first stage was administering online questionnaires to EAW students and conducting interviews with the EAW lecturers. One part of the interviews was immediately analysed to identify the faculties to be approached for the case study. The engineering faculty (ENGIN) and human sciences faculty (HS) were chosen, and their lecturers and students who were taking EAW in CELPAD were recruited to be the participants together with the EAW lecturers. The second stage involved interviews with the selected ENGIN and HS lecturers as well as ENGIN and HS students (referred to as EAW/ENGIN and EAW/HS students). During this stage, online questionnaires were also administered to the EAW lecturers, ENGIN lecturers and HS lecturers.

The presentation of findings begins with the reporting of the demographic data. The demographic data comprise the data from all subunits of analysis: (1) EAW lecturers; (2) EAW/ENGIN students; (3) EAW/HS students; (4) ENGIN lecturers; and (5) HS lecturers. Then, the analysis of the questionnaire items as well as the interview data will be presented. For ease of presentation, some questionnaire data, especially from the faculty lecturers and EAW students, will be presented in the format of cross-tabulation tables. The numbers in bold in one of the columns indicate the majority of the frequencies and percentages.

The analysis of the questionnaire data only included the items which are significant for the findings. It is important to note that the questionnaire data are to complement the interview findings. This is because this part of the research was not entirely successful, especially in achieving the desired response rate from the respondents although several measures (reminders through the EAW coordinator and Facebook group) had been taken to get more responses during the data collection process. In addition, the open-ended questions in the questionnaire did not get enough responses for a thematic analysis to answer the research questions. Therefore, they were not reported as part of the findings.

Since the case study employed interviews and questionnaires, the findings are presented by disaggregating the results from the analysis of interviews and questionnaires to answer each research question. Hence, the most important parts of the analysis, which contribute to answering the research questions, have been selected in the presentation of the findings. To answer the first and second research questions, the discussion on needs references Present Situation Analysis (PSA) and Target Situation Analysis (TSA) – a needs analysis model by Robinson (1991). For the third research question, the discussion of the findings will be carried out from the perspectives of the critical needs analysis or rights analysis (Benesch, 2001a).

4.2 Survey Demographic Data

The demographic data reported here are from questionnaires completed by the five subunits of analysis. The total number of respondents was 157. There were 26 EAW lecturers (N=26, response rate 53%), 39 faculty lecturers (N=39) comprising 22 from the engineering faculty (n=22, response rate 5.2%) and 17 from the human sciences faculty (n=17, response rate 6%), and 92 EAW students (N=92) comprising 48 from the engineering faculty (n=47, response rate 15%) and 45 from the human sciences faculty (n=45, response rate 15%).

4.2.1 Age.

Table 13. *Age of EAW Lecturers (N=26)*

		35 - 44 years old	45 - 54 years old	> 54 years old	Row Total
1. Age:	Freq	15	10	1	26
	Row %	57.70%	38.50%	3.80%	100.00%

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

Table 13 shows the age of the EAW lecturers who completed the questionnaires. At the time of the survey, 15 lecturers or 57.70%, which were more than half of EAW lecturers who completed the questionnaires, were between 35 to 44 years old. Ten other lecturers were in the age range of between 45 to 54 years old, which was 38.50% of the total number of respondents. Only one lecturer was in the age category of 54 or more.

Table 14. *Age of Faculty Lecturers (N=39)*

Faculties:		25 - 34 years old	35 - 44 years old	45 - 54 years old	> 54 years old	Row Total	
1. Age:	ENGIN (n=22)	Freq	4	11	4	3	22
		Row %	18.20%	50.00%	18.20%	13.60%	56.40%
	HS (n=17)	Freq	1	9	4	3	17
		Row %	5.90%	52.90%	23.50%	17.60%	43.60%
	Column Total		5	20	8	6	39
	Column Total %		12.80%	51.30%	20.50%	15.40%	100.00%

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

Table 14 shows that most lecturers from both faculties who completed the questionnaires were between 35 to 44 years old. Eleven respondents from ENGIN and nine from HS were in this category, or 50% and 52.90% respectively. ENGIN had the smallest proportion of lecturers in the over 54 years old group, while HS had only one lecturer in the age range of 25 to 34 years old.

Table 15. *Age of EAW Students (N=92)*

Faculties:		20 - 22 years old	23 - 25 years old	Row Total	
1. Age:	EAW/ENGIN (n=47)	Freq	4	43	47
		Row %	8.50%	91.50%	51.10%
	EAW/HS (n=45)	Freq	11	34	45
		Row %	24.40%	75.60%	48.90%
	Column Total		15	77	92
	Column Total %		16.30%	83.70%	100.00%

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

As shown in Table 15, there are only two age groups of students who completed the questionnaires. It can be clearly seen in the table that the vast majority of students who completed the questionnaires were between 23 to 25 years old. Out of 47 EAW/ENGIN students, 43 or 91.50% of them were in this age group, and out of 45 EAW/HS students, 34 or 75.60% of them were in the same age category. The other age group, which was 20 to 22 years old, comprised only four EAW/ENGIN students.

However, the number for EAW/HS students was slightly higher, with 11 of them in the group.

4.2.2 Respondents' gender.

Table 16. *Gender of EAW Lecturers (N=26)*

		Male	Female	Not indicated	Row Total
2. Gender:	Freq	2	23	1	26
	Row %	8.00%	88.00%	4.00%	100.00%

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

Table 16 shows the genders of EAW lecturers who completed the questionnaires. From the table, it can be seen that almost all respondents were females. One lecturer did not answer this question, and two EAW lecturers who completed the questionnaires were males.

Table 17. *Gender of Faculty Lecturers (N=39)*

Faculties:		Male	Female	Row Total	
2. Gender:	ENGIN (n=22)	Freq	8	14	22
		Row %	36.40%	63.60%	56.40%
	HS (n=17)	Freq	3	14	17
		Row %	17.60%	82.40%	43.60%
	Column Total		11	28	39
	Column Total %		28.20%	71.80%	100.00%

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

Table 17 shows that both groups of faculty lecturers who completed the questionnaires were mainly females. There were 14 ENGIN lecturers, or 63.60% of the total amount of ENGIN respondents, and 14 HS lecturers, or 82.40% of the total amount of HS respondents. There were only eight males from ENGIN and three from HS.

Table 18. *Gender of EAW Students (N=92)*

Faculties:		Male	Female	Row Total	
2. Gender:	EAW/ENGIN (n=47)	Freq	21	26	47
		Row %	44.70%	55.30%	51.10%
	EAW/HS (n=45)	Freq	16	29	45
		Row %	35.60%	64.40%	48.90%
	Column Total		37	55	92
	Column Total %		40.20%	59.80%	100.00%

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

Similar to EAW lecturers and faculty lecturers, most of the EAW students who completed the questionnaires were also females (Table 18). However, the difference between the number of males and females for both groups was not big. For EAW/ENGIN students, 26 of them or 55.30% were females, while for EAW/HS students, the number of females was slightly higher, which was 29 or 64.40%.

4.2.3 Nationality.

Table 19. *Nationality of EAW Lecturers (N=26)*

		Malaysian	Row Total
3. Nationality:	Freq	26	26
	Row %	100.00%	100.00%

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

It can be seen in Table 19 that all 26 EAW respondents who completed the questionnaires were Malaysians.

Table 20. *Nationality of Faculty Lecturers (N=39)*

Faculties:			Malaysian	Non-Malaysian	Other	Row Total
3. Nationality:	ENGIN	Freq	18	3	1	22

	(n=22)	Row %	81.81%	13.64%	4.55%	57.90%
	HS (n=17)	Freq	14	2	0	16
		Row %	87.50%	12.50%	0.00%	42.10%
	Column Total		32	5	1	38
	Column Total %		84.21%	13.16%	2.63%	100.00%

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

Most of the ENGIN and HS respondents were Malaysians. As can be seen from Table 20, 18 respondents or 81.81% of ENGIN respondents were Malaysians. From the HS lecturers group, 14 respondents or 87.50% were Malaysians. However, one respondent did not choose any option, making the total number of respondents who answered this question 16 out of 17 respondents.

Table 21. *Nationality of EAW Students (N=92)*

		Faculties:		Malaysian	Non-Malaysian	Other	Row Total
3. Nationality:	EAW/ENGIN (n=47)	Freq	46	0	1	47	
		Row %	97.87%	0.00%	2.13%	51.09%	
	EAW/HS (n=45)	Freq	40	3	2	45	
		Row %	89.00%	6.60%	4.40%	48.91%	
	Column Total		86	3	3	92	
	Column Total %		93.48%	3.26%	3.26%	100.00%	

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

Table 21 consists of information on the nationality of EAW students who completed the questionnaires. Similar to EAW lecturers and faculty lecturers, the majority of the respondents were Malaysians. Forty-six of EAW/ENGIN students, or 97.87% of them, were Malaysians, and one respondent chose 'Other' but did not specify a nationality. However, it was slightly different for EAW/HS students in terms of the breakdowns. There were 89% or forty Malaysian respondents, three non-Malaysians and two who did not specify a nationality.

4.2.4 Highest academic qualifications.

Table 22. *Highest Academic Qualifications of EAW Lecturers (N=26)*

		PhD	Master's Degree	Bachelor's Degree	Row Total
4. Highest academic qualification:	Freq	3	17	6	26
	Row %	11.50%	65.40%	23.10%	100.00%

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

From Table 22, we can see that the majority of EAW lecturers who had completed the questionnaires held master's degrees at the time of the survey. Seventeen respondents or 65.40% of them were in this category, while three respondents had PhDs and six respondents had bachelor's degrees.

Table 23. *Highest Academic Qualifications of Faculty Lecturers (N=39)*

		Faculties:		PhD	Master's Degree	Row Total
4. Highest academic qualification:	ENGIN (n=22)	Freq		20	1	21
		Row %		95.20%	4.80%	56.80%
	HS (n=17)	Freq		16	0	16
		Row %		100.00%	0.00%	43.20%
	Column Total			36	1	37
	Column Total %			97.30%	2.70%	100.00%

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

Table 23 reveals that between the two groups of faculty lecturers who took part in the survey, 21 ENGIN lecturers or 95.20% of them held PhDs, except for one who had a master's degree. However, one lecturer did not indicate his or her highest academic qualification. This is similar to the other group, as one HS lecturer also did not reveal his or her highest academic qualification. Nevertheless, the rest of the HS respondents indicated that they held PhDs at the time of the survey.

4.2.5 Year of study.

Table 24. *Year of Study of EAW Students (N=92)*

Faculties:		Second year	Third year	Fourth year	Row Total	
4. Year of study:	EAW/ENGIN (n=47)	Freq	0	2	45	47
		Row %	0.00%	4.30%	95.70%	51.60%
	EAW/HS (n=45)	Freq	1	16	27	44
		Row %	2.30%	36.40%	61.40%	48.40%
	Column Total		1	18	72	91
	Column Total %		1.10%	19.80%	79.10%	100.00%

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

In contrast to EAW lecturers and faculty lecturers who revealed their highest academic qualifications, EAW students were asked to indicate their year of study during the survey. As shown in Table 24, almost all (95.70%) EAW/ENGIN students were in their fourth year, which was the final year of their studies, except for two who were in their third year. On the other hand, EAW/HS students were more diverse with regard to their years of study. Only 27 (61.40%) respondents were in their final year. Sixteen students or 36.40% were doing their third year, one student was in their second year, and one student did not indicate his or her year of study.

4.2.6 Years of teaching experience.

Table 25. *Years of Teaching Experience of EAW Lecturers (N=26)*

		More than 20 years	16 - 20 years	11 - 15 years	6 - 10 years	Less than 6 years	Row Total
5. Years of teaching experience in CELPAD:	Freq	2	2	6	11	5	26
	Row %	7.70%	7.70%	23.10%	42.30%	19.20%	100.00%

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

Table 25 gives us information on EAW lecturers' years of teaching experience at the time of the survey. Eleven of them had been teaching for six to ten years. However, this number was not a clear majority as it only represents 42.30% of the total sample. Five of the respondents, or 19.20% of them, had less than six years' teaching experience in EAW, while two respondents had a vast experience of more than 20 years.

Table 26. *Years of Teaching Experience of Faculty Lecturers*

Faculties:		More than 20 years	16 - 20 years	11 - 15 years	6 - 10 years	Less than 6 years	Row Total	
5. Teaching experience (current faculties):	ENGIN (n=22)	Freq	3	3	8	1	7	22
		Row %	13.60%	13.60%	36.40%	4.50%	31.80%	56.40%
	HS (n=17)	Freq	5	1	3	2	6	17
		Row %	29.40%	5.90%	17.60%	11.80%	35.30%	43.60%
	Column Total		8	4	11	3	13	39
	Column Total %		20.50%	10.30%	28.20%	7.70%	33.30%	100.00 %

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

From Table 26, it can be seen that both groups of faculty lecturers included respondents with various lengths of teaching experience when the survey was carried out. Most ENGIN lecturers who completed the survey had eleven to fifteen years of teaching experience at their faculty. There were eight of them, representing 36.40% of the total sample. Seven respondents had less than six years of teaching experience, and one lecturer had been teaching for six to ten years. There were three lecturers who had taught for more than 20 years. On the contrary, many HS respondents (35.30%) had less than six years of experience. The most experienced ones were five in number, a percentage of 29.40% of the total sample.

4.2.7 Linguistic backgrounds.

Table 27. *Linguistic Backgrounds of EAW Students (N=92)*

Faculties:		EPT	IELTS	TOEFL	Other university equivalent - MUET	Row Total	
7. My English language qualification when I entered kulliyah was:	EAW/ENGIN (n=47)	Freq	42	4	1	0	47
		Row %	89.40%	8.50%	2.10%	0.00%	51.10%
	EAW/HS (n=45)	Freq	39	2	2	2	45
		Row %	86.70%	4.40%	4.40%	4.40%	48.90%
	Column Total		81	6	3	2	92
	Column Total %		88.00%	6.50%	3.30%	2.20%	100.00%

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency; EPT = English Proficiency Test; IELTS = International English Language Testing System; TOEFL = Test of English as a Foreign Language; MUET = Malaysian University English Test.

Table 27 indicates the students' linguistic background in terms of their English language qualification when they entered the university. A large majority of students from both groups took the EPT, an English test administered by the university. Forty-two or 89.40% of EAW/ENGIN students were in this category together with 39 or 86.60% of EAW/HS students. Other types of qualifications were IELTS (four EAW/ENGIN students and two EAW/HS students), TOEFL (one EAW/ENGIN student and two EAW/HS students), and MUET (two EAW/HS students).

4.3 Analysis of Data from Interviews and Questionnaires.

The research data were collected from interviews and online questionnaires. Thirty respondents took part in the interviews. The respondents were 15 EAW lecturers and seven faculty lecturers (three from ENGIN and four from HS), and eight EAW students (four from ENGIN and four from HS). Following the analysis, several major themes were developed after classifying the respondents' responses into categories. The categories were developed when the respondents gave consistent responses when answering key questions related to the research questions. Nevertheless, it is important to note that there were times when the respondents had more than one answer to the

same question and the answers were categorised in different categories, but contributed to the main themes that were selected to answer the research questions.

The questionnaires were administered by providing the SurveyGizmo link of the questionnaires to respondents. A total number of 157 respondents completed the questionnaires. The number was made up of 26 EAW Lecturers, 22 ENGIN lecturers, 17 HS lecturers, 47 EAW/ENGIN students and 45 EAW/HS students. The questionnaire data will be presented mostly in cross-tabulation tables with the frequency distribution and percentages to see the association between the data and the respondents.

To answer the research questions, the results of the interviews will be presented alongside the results from questionnaires wherever necessary as a triangulation of evidence to strengthen the construct validity of the case study (Yin, 2014). I will present the themes with reference to the categories and examples from the interview transcripts, to answer Research Question 1 (RQ 1), Research Question 2 (RQ 2) and Research Question 3 (RQ 3). The results of questionnaires will be used to support the interview findings to answer RQ 1 and RQ 2.

4.4 Research Question 1

The first research question (RQ 1) is:

1. What are the EAW lecturers', the faculty lecturers', and students' perceptions of academic writing needs?

To answer this research question on eliciting the respondents' perceptions on the academic writing needs of the students, following Robinson (1991), the responses were analysed to understand the needs according to Present Situation Analysis (PSA) and Target Situation Analysis (TSA).

For EAW lecturers, they are less likely to know their students' specific needs in terms of academic writing in their faculties; instead, they could only see their students' problems in EAW and set expectations of what the students would achieve from EAW. Questions were asked about what they think the students' problems were (PSA) and what students would achieve from the course (TSA) to elicit their opinions on student

needs. They were also asked to explain how they thought EAW could fulfill students' writing needs in their respective faculties (TSA). On the other hand, it was rather straightforward with the faculty lecturers. With regard to academic writing, they would see their student needs in terms of what writing skills their students needed to have in their studies (PSA), and what they expected the students to be able to do in academic language performance (TSA). The students were also able to give information on their needs by sharing what their problems were (PSA) and what they hoped to achieve from the EAW course (TSA).

4.4.1 Present Situation Analysis (PSA).

Two major themes emerged in the PSA from the interviews with the respondents: (1) student needs for research writing skills; and (2) student needs for basic language skills. However, another theme was: (3) students have needs which were unmet by EAW.

4.4.1.1 Theme 1: Student needs for research writing skills.

This theme derived from three categories classifying students' present needs that emerged during the analysis of the interviews. The students' present needs were identified as the respondents described the problems faced by students in their writing and their needs. These three categories are what the respondents believed to be the most important research writing skills needed by students.

The first one is 'literature review', which was specifically mentioned by four EAW lecturers and two ENGIN lecturers. For example, when asked about what the respondents thought their student needs were, one EAW lecturer said that "the problem here lies in literature review" (LEAW6, Line 157), and another lecturer from ENGIN mentioned that the students needed to "be taught how to critically do the literature review" (LENG3, Line 138).

The second category is 'paraphrasing and summarising'. This category was developed from responses given by three EAW lecturers, two ENGIN lecturers, two EAW/ENGIN students and one EAW/HS student. One EAW lecturer explained that the students "don't really understand that they need to be critical; they have to read and then

take the relevant ideas and then try to sort of summarise, paraphrase.” (LEAW5, Lines 206 – 207). The lecturers from ENGIN also shared the same opinion as they said: “Although they cite, but they still...they need to rephrase all the sentences” (LENG2, Lines 181 – 182); and “...at the moment I think the...the students are confused even on how to actually reword or rephrase from a journal, you know, from a published paper. They don't know what is plagiarism. So what they do is normally just copy and paste” (LENG1, Lines 57 – 59).

Moreover, examples from students’ responses are:

About writing, for me, now I am concerned with the... with how I paraphrase (SHS3, Lines 63 – 64);

I think we need to have like... you need to know how to put anything that you wanna say. Everything in the simplest form possible so that people can understand it easily (SENG2, Lines 48 – 49).

The third category is ‘citations’. All three ENGIN lecturers perceived that one of their students’ present needs is to know how to make proper citations. When asked about their students’ writing problems, one ENGIN lecturer said, “they don’t know how to actually quote properly for citation purposes” (LENG1, Lines 61 – 62), and in explaining what her students needed to do in relation to academic writing, she mentioned, “... need to have a proper citation” (LENG2, Line 118). Two EAW lecturers, two EAW/ENGIN students and one EAW/HS student also mentioned this when explaining about academic writing related to present situation needs. One of the EAW/ENGIN students referred to doing citations as his problem in writing. He said, “... looking back right now at my Seminar report, it's full of mistakes in terms of citation” (SENG4, Lines 37 – 38).

This theme is also supported by the stimulated recall data, which are the lecturers’ comments about students’ problems in written assignments during the interviews. Students’ written assignments were used as the stimulus for the lecturers to

retrieve their thoughts to answer the interview questions (Dörnyei, 2007; Greene & Higgins, 1994). Some examples are shown in Table 28.

Table 28. *Stimulated Recall Data indicating Needs for Research Writing Skills*

Respondents	Comments	Excerpts from assignments
LEAW3	<p>LEAW3: My students, they know that they have to write in that way, so it is different from how they write to their friends... like, you know the words that they use ‘the scope of teaching is much wider, For instance... and Research evidence has shown that...’ (Lines 156 – 161).</p> <p>LEAW3: This is an example of language for research writing... we teach them, but I think this is... one of the difficult ones. (Lines 163 – 164).</p> <p>LEAW3: ...as you can see this is the first draft... I commented I see a lot of copying from the original. (Lines 167 – 168).</p> <p>LEAW3: ... so I asked them to paraphrase... use appropriate technique in citing sources. (Lines 172 – 182).</p>	<p>The scope of teaching is much wider compared to before. For instance, back in the old days a teacher may only teaches the students. (p. 4)</p> <p>Research evidence has shown that there is high stress and burnout among lecturers in higher educational institutions. (p. 5)</p>
LEAW5	<p>LEAW5: We have told them that they have to indicate that they have started the literature review. So, for example, this student says... ‘Several literature have been reviewed in the relationship between the gender differences... and belief in conspiracy theory’ Then I know that this is the beginning of the literature review, and added by the citation ‘[inaudible] 2005 did a research’ and then ‘a study conducted by Darwin’ ok, then ‘despite numerous studies reported on the relationship between gender’,</p>	<p>Several literature have been reviewed in the relationship between the gender differences (males and females) and belief in conspiracy theory. (p. 4)</p> <p>Second, Farias, Claridge and Lalljee (2005) did a research on the relationship between involvement in New Age religiosity and certain aspects of personality and cognitive functioning. (p. 5)</p> <p>Third, a study conducted by Darwin, Neave and Holmes (2011) among the student population of a</p>

	<p>that..that I know, that is... they tried to say something about the gap. (Lines 188 – 195).</p> <p>Me: Generally, in terms of academic writing in EAW, what kind of problems do you see?</p> <p>LEAW5: ...I would say literature review, very difficult... because most of the students tend to copy and paste. They don't really understand that they need to be critical; they have to read and then take the relevant ideas and then try to sort of summarise, paraphrase. (Lines 202 – 207).</p>	<p>North-East University in the United Kingdom (UK). (p. 5)</p> <p>Despite numerous studies reported on the relationship between gender differences and superstitious belief, magical thinking or conspiracy thinking, studies done on the relationship between gender differences and belief in conspiracy theory among university students are still limited. (p. 5)</p>
LENG1	<p>LENG1: Let me see... just grammar errors... and then</p> <p>Me: Grammar errors?</p> <p>LENG1: Yes grammar errors, and then how they quote. The way they quote sometimes... it's not consistent throughout the report.</p> <p>Me: Citation techniques?</p> <p>LENG1: Yes, citation techniques, yes. (Lines 114 – 121).</p>	<p>Wiercigroch M. and Budak states that mode of coupling resulted from the vibration in the thrust force direction generate vibration in the thrust and cutting force direction.</p> <p>Amin et al. and Anayet u Patwari et al. found that the root cause of chatter lies in the coincidence of frequency of instability of chip formation with one of the natural frequencies of the machine-spindle-tool system components during end milling machining operation. (p. 9)</p> <p>*No year in citations</p>
LENG2	<p>LENG2: So this... basically if we want to produce a literature review, so we need to have a proper citation. (Line 118).</p> <p>LENG2: So everything is cited if they take figures or references from others. (Line 129).</p> <p>LENG2: They need to produce the references. (Line 132).</p>	<p>Table 2.1 shows the basic facts of oil palm. (p. 7)</p> <p>Table 2.2 shows the grading standard of FFB according to MPOB manual grading. (p. 7)</p> <p>*Both tables do not have references.</p>

Table 28 shows that the EAW lecturers (LEAW3 and LEAW5) and the ENGIN lecturers (LENG1 and LENG2) used examples from their students' written assignments to show the problems indicating the present situation needs (PSA) related to research

writing skills. For instance, LEAW3 highlighted some examples (e.g., ‘Research evidence has shown that’) and related them to the need for students to have paraphrasing and referencing skills. Similarly, LEAW5 highlighted sentences and phrases signalling specific purposes in a research paper before she stressed the need for summarising and paraphrasing skills to overcome students’ problems in writing the literature review. LENG1 and LENG2 also highlighted the need for students to know how to apply citation techniques after they saw missing references in their students’ assignments.

4.4.1.2 Conclusion.

In conclusion, it appears that this theme emerged from responses by all parties, except from HS lecturers. Apparently, this view is mostly associated with EAW lecturers, ENGIN lecturers and EAW/ENGIN students. Only two EAW/HS students felt that research writing skills are one of the main present situation needs. Three categories which were perceived as the most important research writing skills needed by students are: (1) literature review; (2) paraphrasing and summarising; and (3) citations.

4.4.1.3 Theme 2: Student needs for basic language skills.

This theme was identified after the respondents revealed that students needed basic language skills. The need was identified as the respondents discussed the problems in using some basic language skills. These language skills have been classified into three main categories. The first one is rather general, which is ‘grammar’, while the other two are actually specific items in grammar, which are ‘tenses’ and ‘subject-verb agreement’. Four EAW lecturers, three HS lecturers, one ENGIN lecturer and two EAW/HS students specifically mentioned ‘grammar’ upon explaining writing problems which could be related to present situation needs. As one EAW lecturer said, “some of them are still grappling in terms of their grammar.” (LEAW2, Lines 116 – 117). In addition, one EAW/HS student said, “I have...I have problem with my writing, especially on my grammar” (SHS2, Line 40). Two EAW lecturers and one ENGIN lecturer mentioned ‘tenses’, and three EAW lecturers revealed ‘subject-verb agreement’ as problems related to student needs for basic language skills. Other than these main

categories, there were two other basic language skills mentioned by two respondents which could be categorised as ‘connectors’ and ‘vocabulary’, but they were not mentioned by others.

Table 29 shows some examples from the stimulated recall data which indicate the lecturers’ reference to their students’ written assignments as they described their students’ needs in terms of basic language skills.

Table 29. *Stimulated Recall Data indicating Needs for Basic Language Skills*

Respondents	Comments	Excerpts from assignments
LEAW15	LEAW15: Yes, subject-verb agreement. Even though law students, good graduating Law students, still, they are facing this kind of problems - subject-verb agreement. I don't know why. You know, because... because I, actually I tell my students all the time. When it comes to subject-verb agreement, it is very, very crucial because, subject-verb agreement, the subject... you know, somehow even the location itself - subject and verb. So verb is next to the subject. If it doesn't agree to each other, it can be seen... your sentence is not perfect, as simple as that. So, that's subject-verb agreement. (Lines 135 – 141).	<p>The questionnaires were distributed by hand to 40 respondents. The respondents consisted of 19 students and three lecturers from Ahmad Ibrahim Kulliyah of Laws (AIKOL) and 15 students and three lecturers from Kulliyah of Economics and Management Sciences (KENMS). The students’ survey was administered in the IIUM library, AIKOL Café, Economic Café, class and room. While, the lecturers survey were administered in their office. (p. 8)</p> <p>According to Amanuddin Shamsuddin et al. (2014), he suggested that the personally administered approach in distributing and collecting the questionnaires give an advantages and opportunity for the researchers to introduce the research topic and motivate the respondents to answer the questions wholeheartedly. (p. 8)</p>
LHS1	LHS1: Even though we tell them the difference between a research objective statement and how research question should be like, they don’t see the difference between the statement and the question. (Lines 141 – 142). LSH1: You see. So I think that	<p>What are the benefits gained by the offspring of mix marriages IIUM staff and students.</p> <p>What are the challenges faced by the offspring of mix marriages IIUM staff and students. (p. 5)</p> <p>*Both research questions do not</p>

	comes a lot with proficiency in formulating sentences. (Line 144).	have question marks.
LHS2	LHS2: Okay, the problem with a student's writing is that, they are ..they don't know how to write. Err...this is not concerning academic or research writing. Basic writing actually. They don't know. To me, they don't know. Because it seems to me that, within a paragraph, they're...they are lost. All right. They are lost, they don't know the specific point that they need to stress. When they write, there is no connecting sentences, there is no connection between preceding and subsequent sentences, and between paragraphs there is no connecting, connectors between first paragraph and the second paragraph, and everything is...seems to be...total haywire, if I may use the word, because there's no connection. When you read, you cannot make sense. To me, that is basic in writing. All right. (Lines 69 – 76).	The methods of parenting style will influence teenagers' academic performances whether it become good or bad in their performances. Parents who practiced parenting style in meaningful behaviour such as authoritative parenting, it will increase the level of academic performances compared to parents who ignore their responsibilities which is neglectful parenting. According to Baumrind, authoritative parents is who attempt to direct the child's activities but in a rational issue oriented manner such as giving a support, love, protection and communicate well with their children (cited from Uji, Sakamoto, Adachi, & Kitamura, 2013). Neglectful parents is the parent who do not involve the child's life; it is associated with children's social competence, especially a lack of self-control (Baumrind, 1971, 2012). (p. 1) *Paragraph lacks coherence

In Table 29, the EAW lecturer (LEAW15) commented that the subject-verb agreement is one of the main problems among her students after she noticed the errors in her students' work. Additionally, one of the HS lecturers (LHS2) emphasised that the students need to address their basic language skills, as she was reading her students' written assignment which had problems of coherence in writing.

4.4.1.4 Conclusion.

In summary, this theme was formed as the respondents discussed the problems in applying some basic language skills, which is seen as a need for the students. The idea was shared by respondents from all groups. However, compared to the first theme,

all HS lecturers mentioned this when they discussed their students' present needs. Three categories of basic language skills perceived as the most important are: (1) grammar; (2) tenses; and (3) subject-verb agreement.

4.4.1.5 Theme 3: Students have needs which were unmet by EAW.

This is an interesting finding from the interviews with two of the student respondents. Both of them described their writing needs, but they either felt that EAW was not addressing their needs, or they did not see the need for EAW to meet their needs.

One of them is an EAW/HS student. Despite admitting that grammar was his problem in writing, he did not think that EAW had met his need to improve his grammar. He explained this in his response:

Mostly, EAW it didn't...it didn't teach me English. It didn't teach me how to write or how to what...it just teach me how to do research, the step of doing research and, just teach me how to write the research, which is... I already... always do. (SHS2, Lines 137 – 139).

This student viewed EAW as a course that taught research methodology, something that he had already learned in his faculty. When asked about the writing skills other than grammar, such as summarising, paraphrasing and synthesising, he remained consistent in his opinion that he already learned all those skills in his faculty and that they are all the same thing.

Another student who shared a similar view was an EAW/ENGIN student. He explained that the nature of writing in his faculty required him to summarise information from different sources. However, even though he regarded summarising as his need, and that summarising is taught in EAW, he claimed that it was not difficult for him to summarise. He also added that he did not need to quote, and he did not have to do a lot of synthesising and paraphrasing either, as can be seen in this excerpt from the interview:

SENG1: I apply the summarising skills especially. Not from... not a lot from synthesising and everything... I am not quoting. A lot of summarising. (Lines 49 – 50)

Me: A lot of summarising. Do you find it difficult to summarise? (Line 51)

SENG1: Not really. If I have the right sources, and I have the reliable sources, then, it's gonna be very easy for me to summarise. (Lines 52 – 53)

When I tried to get him talk about any writing difficulties that he had, he admitted that writing was difficult, but he related his difficulties to the aspect of the content of writing:

Me: Ok. So in a way when you said it's difficult to write, can you give examples what is or what are difficult areas or skills that you have to have to write? (Lines 40 – 41)

SENG1: Because I have to write about what the problem is when I'm conducting the project. But if I want to make the research about that problem, there's no specific solution for that problem so I have to take from a lot of sources and come out with my own answer. (Lines 42 – 44)

4.4.1.6 Conclusion.

This finding revealed that although some respondents described their present writing needs, they did not see their needs being addressed by EAW. In some cases, they did not see the need for EAW to meet their needs.

4.4.2 Target Situation Analysis (TSA).

The respondents also explained about their students' target needs, and the following is the result of TSA from the interviews. Three major themes were developed from the responses on the student target needs: (1) applying research writing skills upon graduation; (2) writing good research reports; and (3) having a higher level of proficiency in language.

4.4.2.1 Theme 1: Applying research writing skills upon graduation.

Three respondents among the EAW lecturers felt that students needed to have research writing skills as their target needs as they could apply them even after graduation. They believed that the students would be able to use the research skills if they were to continue their studies, and they might also be using the skills in their work, as illustrated by the responses below:

Because when they graduate, they have to have the ability to write as well as doing research. I mean, I think we should be able to produce those kinds of students. Not only just to, you know, know theories, but also be able to write whatever they have written academically. (LEAW11, Lines 100 – 103);

... some of the components or the skills which are included in EAW, they may use it when they're in the workforce. For example, if they... we require them to create or come up with survey questions, collect data, so even though they are not researching, maybe once they go to work, they may need to do that as well. (LEAW1, Lines 50 – 53);

Because especially for those who, for those who have intentions to pursue study to higher level, especially master students and PhD. I even have many students, they actually plan to, you know, to climb higher. So yea, of course this course is totally needed. (LEAW15, Lines 68 – 71).

4.4.2.2 Conclusion.

The responses above were part of EAW lecturers' answers to the question investigating student target needs in terms of academic writing in their faculties. Since academic writing is taught as research writing in EAW, they perceived it as something that students needed in relation to research writing skills in the future.

4.4.2.3 Theme 2: Writing good research reports.

Writing good research reports is another major theme. However, none of the EAW lecturers viewed this as a target situation that their students had a need for. Faculty lecturers, on the other hand, perceived the importance of good research reports so that they could be published and enjoyed by readers reading them. One ENGIN lecturer mentioned that, "... the ultimate goal is that, if a student can produce a good report, that their report can be straight away transformed into an article to be submitted to journal." (LENG2, Line 214 – 215), and another one from the same faculty said that she would expect her students "to come out with a report that is not just readable but err...I can enjoy reading." (LENG3, Lines 306 – 307). One lecturer from HS shared a similar view when it comes to target needs as she hoped the students "would be able to come out with a good proposal." (LHS3, Line 139). Two students also viewed the importance of producing good research reports as their target situation needs. When asked what they would achieve from EAW, an EAW/HS student answered, "a good research paper" (SHS1, Line 92). Furthermore, an EAW/ENGIN student revealed, "Probably, if I really concentrate, I probably know how to use... do a research paper, and probably know the correct format and way to cite my sources, and that will help me a lot in FYP (final year project) and IDP (integrated design project)" (SENG1, Lines 78 – 80).

4.4.2.4 Conclusion.

It seems interesting that for EAW lecturers who taught research writing in EAW, none of them perceived writing good research reports as the main target need for their students. Instead, there were lecturers as well as students from ENGIN and HS who thought that it was one of the important target needs as far as academic writing was concerned.

4.4.2.5 Theme 3: Having a higher level of proficiency in language.

Finally, another major theme related to TSA is 'having a higher level of proficiency in language'. This theme developed only from HS lecturers' responses. According to three of them, students needed to achieve a higher level of proficiency,

especially in writing. One of them said that students should “produce enough level of proficiency of that language that will enable them to write properly” (LHS2, Lines 170 – 171). She also added:

And then that skill actually cannot stop there, they have to be able to produce something which is different from the common writing, common writing... just the normal writing, because they have to get into the academic or research-based writing. (LSH2, Lines 180 – 182)

Another respondent extended the notion of language proficiency to reading. She mentioned, “it is not just writing...it’s academic language performance. Okay. So perhaps also more reading, higher proficiency in language.” (LHS1, Lines 167 – 168)

4.4.2.6 Conclusion.

To conclude, this theme was only developed from responses from HS lecturers. They seemed to be consistently concerned with their students’ proficiency in English language and hoped the students would have a higher level of proficiency in the future.

4.4.3 Questionnaire results on EAW lecturers’, faculty lecturers’ and students’ perceptions of academic writing.

From the questionnaire, I was able to gather additional information on the research subjects’ perceptions of academic writing. Specifically, I wanted to know the importance of writing to them, in terms of the skills, academic writing and research writing (items one, two and three), and to see how important they thought writing in relation to EAW course objectives (items four, five, six, seven and eight) was. The tool used to elicit this information in the questionnaire was the Likert scale. The items were in the form of statements, and the respondents were asked to rate their attitudes towards the statements by choosing one of the five fixed choice responses to express how much they agreed or disagreed with the statements. The following analyses in Table 30 and Table 31 will provide information on the subjects’ perceptions towards academic writing.

Table 30. *Importance of Writing to Students: EAW Lecturers', Faculty Lecturers' and EAW Students' Perceptions*

			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree	Row Total	
1. Writing is the most important language skill for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs.	EAW Lecturers (n=25)	Freq	0	0	1	15	9	25	
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	4.00%	60.00%	36.00%	100.00%	
	ENGIN Lecturers (n=22)	Freq	0	2	1	13	6	22	
		Row %	0.00%	9.10%	4.50%	59.10%	27.30%	100.00%	
	HS Lecturers (n=17)	Freq	2	2	0	3	10	17	
		Row %	11.80%	11.80%	0.00%	17.60%	58.80%	100.00%	
	EAW/ENGIN Students (n=46)	Freq	1	9	9	20	7	46	
		Row %	2.17%	19.57%	19.57%	43.48%	15.22%	100.00%	
	EAW/HS Students (n=45)	Freq	0	0	5	22	18	45	
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	11.10%	48.90%	40.00%	100.00%	
	2. Academic writing is very important for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs.	EAW Lecturers (n=26)	Freq	1	0	0	14	11	26
			Row %	3.80%	0.00%	0.00%	53.80%	42.30%	100.00%
ENGIN Lecturers (n=22)		Freq	0	0	0	12	10	22	
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	54.50%	45.50%	100.00%	
HS Lecturers (n=16)		Freq	1	0	0	4	11	16	
		Row %	6.30%	0.00%	0.00%	25.00%	68.80%	100.00%	
EAW/ENGIN Students (n=46)		Freq	0	4	9	22	11	46	
		Row %	0.00%	8.70%	19.60%	47.80%	23.90%	100.00%	
EAW/HS Students (n=45)		Freq	0	0	4	22	19	45	
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	8.90%	48.90%	42.20%	100.00%	
3. Research writing is very important for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs.		EAW Lecturers (n=26)	Freq	1	2	2	13	8	26
			Row %	3.80%	7.70%	7.70%	50.00%	30.80%	100.00%
	ENGIN Lecturers (n=22)	Freq	0	0	0	11	11	22	
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	50.00%	50.00%	100.00%	
	HS Lecturers (n=17)	Freq	2	0	0	3	12	17	
		Row %	11.80%	0.00%	0.00%	17.60%	70.60%	100.00%	
	EAW/ENGIN Students (n=45)	Freq	0	1	4	22	18	45	
		Row %	0.00%	2.20%	8.90%	48.90%	40.00%	100.00%	
	EAW/HS Students (n=44)	Freq	0	0	5	20	19	44	
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	11.40%	45.50%	43.20%	100.10%	

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

Table 30 gives us the information on how EAW lecturers, faculty lecturers and EAW students perceived the importance of academic writing. The first statement was 'Writing is the most important language skill for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs'. In this statement, the emphasis was on writing being 'the most important language skill' needed by the students. For this statement, generally, most respondents from all four groups revealed that they agreed with the statement; nonetheless, HS lecturers mostly chose 'Strongly Agree' to stress their agreement. There were 15 EAW lecturers (60%), 13 ENGIN lecturers (59.10%), 20 EAW/ENGIN students (43.48%) and 22 EAW/HS students (48.90%) who selected 'Agree' for their answer, whereas 10 or 58.80% of HS lecturers answered 'Strongly Agree'. None of the EAW lecturers and EAW/HS students disagreed with this statement. However, we can see that there were some from other groups who either disagreed or strongly disagreed with it, even though the number was relatively small. Nonetheless, it can be said that generally, writing was perceived as the most important language skill for students in their faculties.

The responses to the second statement, 'Academic writing is very important for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs', were consistent with the first one. The purpose of asking for their response to this statement was similar to the first one, except for the specific focus on the type of writing in this second statement, which is 'academic writing'. It was thought that the notion of 'academic writing' would make writing seem more related to the students' needs in their studies. Again, most of them agreed with the statement, and most HS lecturers again chose 'Strongly Agree'. Fourteen EAW lecturers (53.80%), 12 ENGIN lecturers (54.50%), 22 EAW/ENGIN students (47.80%) and 22 EAW/HS students (48.90%) answered 'Agree', while 11 HS lecturers (68.80%) answered 'Strongly Agree'. Nevertheless, one EAW lecturer and one HS lecturer chose 'Strongly Disagree', and four EAW/ENGIN students selected 'Disagree'. This shows that, there were some lecturers and students, albeit only a few, who disagreed that academic writing was the most important language skill for the students.

The last statement read 'Research writing is very important for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs'. Here, the emphasis was on 'research writing' in general. Once again, the responses were similar to the previous two items. It can be seen that the majority of the respondents were in agreement with the importance of research writing.

However, it is interesting to note that all ENGIN lecturers had either chosen ‘Strongly Agree’ or ‘Agree’, and the number of responses was the same - 11 for both categories. Other than that, 13 EAW lecturers (50%), 22 EAW/ENGIN students (48.90%) and 20 EAW/HS students (45.50%) answered ‘Agree’, and 12 HS lecturers (70.60%) opted for ‘Strongly Agree’. None of the ENGIN lecturers and EAW/HS students disagreed with this statement. However, we can see that there were three EAW lecturers, two HS lecturers and one EAW/ENGIN student who disagreed. On another note, this result can be related to one of the themes of PSA from the interview results – students’ need for research writing skills. The results from the interviews and this questionnaire item suggest that research writing plays an important role for students in their faculties.

In summary, it can be said that the majority of respondents from all five groups agreed with writing being the most important language skill for students. The majority also agreed that academic writing and research writing were very important in the faculties. However, only the majority of HS lecturers strongly agreed with all three statements. For other groups, even though the majority selected ‘Agree’, the number of respondents who chose ‘Strongly Agree’ was also big and sometimes close to the number who answered ‘Agree’.

On the contrary, the number of respondents who disagreed was not great. For the three statements, only EAW/ENGIN students had the biggest number of responses that disagreed, with a total of ten (nine or 19.57% ‘Disagree’, one or 2.17% ‘Strongly Disagree’) with item number one. It is also interesting to note that nine EAW/ENGIN students were not able to decide their attitudes towards the first and second statements. EAW/ENGIN students also had the lowest percentage of respondents who agreed with the first and second statements compared to the other four groups. This may suggest that perhaps the idea of the importance of writing was less prevalent among students with the engineering background, even though their lecturers may have an opposite view to this.

Table 31. *Importance of Writing Skills in EAW to Students: EAW Lecturers', Faculty Lecturers' and EAW Students' Perceptions*

			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree	Row Total	
4. It is important for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs to know how to cite academic sources.	EAW Lecturers (n=26)	Freq	2	0	0	13	11	26	
		Row %	7.70%	0.00%	0.00%	50.00%	42.30%	100.00%	
	ENGIN Lecturers (n=22)	Freq	0	0	0	6	16	22	
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	27.30%	72.70%	100.00%	
	HS Lecturers (n=17)	Freq	2	0	0	2	13	17	
		Row %	11.80%	0.00%	0.00%	11.80%	76.50%	100.00%	
	EAW/ENGIN Students (n=46)	Freq	0	1	3	23	19	46	
		Row %	0.00%	2.20%	6.50%	50.00%	41.30%	100.00%	
	EAW/HS Students (n=45)	Freq	0	0	1	14	30	45	
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	2.20%	31.10%	66.70%	100.00%	
	5. It is important for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs to be able to use appropriate language to review the literature.	EAW Lecturers (n=26)	Freq	1	0	0	15	10	26
			Row %	3.80%	0.00%	0.00%	57.70%	38.50%	100.00%
ENGIN Lecturers (n=22)		Freq	0	0	0	3	19	22	
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	13.60%	86.40%	100.00%	
HS Lecturers (n=17)		Freq	2	0	0	3	12	17	
		Row %	11.80%	0.00%	0.00%	17.60%	70.60%	100.00%	
EAW/ENGIN Students (n=45)		Freq	0	2	2	26	15	45	
		Row %	0.00%	4.44%	4.44%	57.78%	33.33%	100.00%	
EAW/HS Students (n=44)		Freq	0	0	0	15	29	44	
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	34.10%	65.90%	100.00%	
6. It is important for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs to be able to apply appropriate language to write a research paper.		EAW Lecturers (n=26)	Freq	1	0	0	14	11	26
			Row %	3.80%	0.00%	0.00%	53.80%	42.30%	100.00%
	ENGIN Lecturers (n=22)	Freq	0	0	0	5	17	22	
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	22.70%	77.30%	100.00%	
	HS Lecturers (n=17)	Freq	2	0	0	3	12	17	
		Row %	11.80%	0.00%	0.00%	17.60%	70.60%	100.00%	
	EAW/ENGIN Students (n=45)	Freq	0	0	1	28	16	45	
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	2.20%	62.20%	35.60%	100.00%	
	EAW/HS Students (n=44)	Freq	0	0	0	18	26	44	
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	40.90%	59.10%	100.00%	

7. It is important for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs to be able to demonstrate appropriate language to write an academic piece of writing.	EAW Lecturers (n=25)	Freq	2	0	0	11	12	25
		Row %	8.00%	0.00%	0.00%	44.00%	48.00%	100.00%
	ENGIN Lecturers (n=21)	Freq	0	0	0	8	13	21
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	38.10%	61.90%	100.00%
	HS Lecturers (n=17)	Freq	2	0	0	3	12	17
		Row %	11.80%	0.00%	0.00%	17.60%	70.60%	100.00%
	EAW/ENGIN Students (n=44)	Freq	0	0	2	28	14	44
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	4.55%	63.64%	31.82%	100.00%
	EAW/HS Students (n=45)	Freq	0	0	0	20	25	45
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	44.40%	55.60%	100.00%
8. It is important for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs to be able to apply appropriate language to present research findings or academic papers.	EAW Lecturers (n=26)	Freq	2	2	6	11	5	26
		Row %	7.70%	7.70%	23.10%	42.30%	19.20%	100.00%
	ENGIN Lecturers (n=22)	Freq	0	0	0	5	17	22
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	22.70%	77.30%	100.00%
	HS Lecturers (n=17)	Freq	2	0	0	4	11	17
		Row %	11.80%	0.00%	0.00%	23.50%	64.70%	100.00%
	EAW/ENGIN Students (n=45)	Freq	0	0	1	27	17	45
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	2.20%	60.00%	37.80%	100.00%
	EAW/HS Students (n=45)	Freq	0	0	1	19	25	45
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	2.20%	42.20%	55.60%	100.00%

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

Table 31 depicts the respondents' attitudes towards the importance of writing skills that were outlined in the EAW course objectives. I was interested to know how important the specific writing skills taught and expected of the students to achieve in the EAW course were believed to be, especially among the faculty lecturers and EAW students. There were five objectives as far as writing in EAW was concerned. The first objective was included in the first statement, 'It is important for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs to know how to cite academic sources'. Citing academic sources is one of the research writing skills. Compared to all the items in the table, generally, this item attracted the most number of respondents to either 'Agree' or 'Strongly Agree'. Thirteen EAW lecturers (50%) and 11 EAW/ENGIN students (50%) selected 'Agree', while 16 ENGIN lecturers (72.70%), 13 HS lecturers (76.50%) and 30 EAW/HS students (66.70%) strongly agreed that citing academic sources was important for the students. This suggests that most faculty lecturers and EAW/HS students

recognised the importance of this specific skill in research writing for the students in their studies. Another interesting point is that none of the ENGIN lecturers chose the other three categories of attitudes, which means that all of them agreed with the statement.

The second item was a statement consisting of another EAW course objective. The statement was 'It is important for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs to be able to use appropriate language to review the literature'. Reviewing the literature is also another skill in research writing. Similar to the first item, even though all groups agreed with this statement, most of the EAW lecturers (57.70%) and EAW/ENGIN students (57.78%) chose the category of 'Agree'. A majority of ENGIN lecturers, 86.40%, chose 'Strongly Agree', together with 12 HS lecturers (70.60%) and 29 HS students (65.90%). Like the first item, none of the ENGIN lecturers selected the other three categories of attitudes, which shows that they had no doubt this research writing skill should be taught to their students. In addition, EAW/HS students held similar views, as all of them either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement.

The third statement comprised an EAW course objective highlighting the ability to use the language for research writing. The responses for the statement, 'It is important for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs to be able to apply appropriate language to write a research paper', were again very much the same as the first and second statements. The largest number of EAW lecturers and EAW/ENGIN students answered 'Agree' while most of the respondents in other groups selected 'Strongly Agree'. The 'Agree' category was represented by 14 EAW lecturers (53.80%) and 28 EAW/ENGIN students (62.20%), and the latter was represented by 17 ENGIN lecturers (77.70%), 12 HS lecturers (70.60%) and 26 EAW/HS students (59.10%). Another similar pattern here is none of the ENGIN lecturers and EAW/HS students chose the other three answers, indicating their total agreement with the need to have the language to write a research paper taught to students.

The next statement was 'It is important for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs to be able to demonstrate appropriate language to write an academic piece of writing'. This statement, although not directly stating a research writing skill, is regarded as related to research writing as academic language is used in writing research.

For this item, the pattern of major responses changed for EAW lecturers, but not for EAW/ENGIN students. Like the previous item, most of the EAW/ENGIN students gave 'Agree' as their response. On the other hand, all other groups including EAW lecturers mostly chose 'Strongly Agree'. Twelve EAW lecturers (48%), 13 ENGIN lecturers (61.90%), 12 HS lecturers (70.60%) and 25 EAW/HS students (55.60%) strongly agreed with this statement. However, the change in pattern for EAW lecturers was not really significant as the difference between those who agreed and strongly agreed was only one lecturer. Just like for the previous two statements, all ENGIN lecturers and EAW/HS students opted for the 'Agree' or 'Strongly Agree' categories.

The last statement in the questionnaire also derived from another EAW course objective. The item was 'It is important for students in my kulliyah/most kulliyahs to be able to apply appropriate language to present research findings or academic papers'. The word 'present' in this statement could be interpreted in two ways – verbal presentation or written presentation. Since it could also be interpreted as a writing skill, it was chosen to be included as one of the questionnaire items. For this statement, the results were similar to the major responses to the first three statements – EAW lecturers and EAW/ENGIN students mainly chose 'Agree' (42.30% or 11 lecturers and 60% or 27 students respectively), and the rest of the groups had the majority of respondents in the 'Strongly Agree' category. There were 17 ENGIN lecturers (77.30%), 11 HS lecturers (64.70%) and 25 EAW/HS students (55.60%) who selected 'Strongly Agree'. However, this time ENGIN lecturers were the only group that did not choose any other answers other than 'Agree' and 'Strongly Agree'. Another interesting pattern in this result is EAW lecturers had their responses spread out across all categories of answers. Other than the 11 who agreed, there were five who strongly agreed with the statement; on the other hand, there were two lecturers in the 'Strongly Disagree' and 'Disagree' categories, and six lecturers in the 'Undecided' category.

To sum up, it was clear throughout the analysis that most respondents in all groups mainly agreed with the specific research writing skills in the EAW course objectives. The majority of ENGIN lecturers, HS lecturers and EAW/HS students chose the 'Strongly Agree' option, while EAW lecturers and EAW/ENGIN students most of the time opted for the 'Agree' category, except for once for EAW lecturers. These

results were different from the results of the analysis of Table 30, as only HS lecturers were inclined towards the ‘Strongly Agree’ category. What can be said from this analysis is that most faculty lecturers from both ENGIN and HS, as well as EAW/HS students viewed the specific skills which were taught and expected to be achieved in EAW as important for the students in their studies. This was even more predominant among ENGIN lecturers as none of them throughout these statements disagreed or were undecided about their attitudes. Similarly, EAW/HS students also opted for the ‘Agree’ or ‘Strongly Agree’ categories, except for the last statement. Even though there were some respondents in other groups who disagreed or were undecided, the number and percentage were relatively small compared to those who were in the ‘Agree’ and ‘Strongly Agree’ categories.

All in all, it can be said that these results further supported the second theme of the interview PSA, which was ‘student needs for research writing skills’. The results from the interviews and this analysis suggest that research writing skills were needed by students to study in their faculties.

4.5 Conclusion to Research Question 1

The first research question is: ‘1. What are the EAW lecturers’, the faculty lecturers’, and students’ perceptions of academic writing needs?’. To answer this research question, data were collected through interviews and questionnaires administered to EAW, ENGIN and HS lecturers, as well as ENGIN and HS students who were taking EAW during the time of the survey. From the interviews, the respondents’ responses were analysed according to the needs analysis framework by Robinson (1991). As a result, two categories of academic writing needs were developed – one according to Present Situation Analysis (PSA), and the other according to Target Situation Analysis (TSA).

From PSA, two major themes emerged to answer the research question, which are ‘student needs for research writing skills’ and ‘student needs for basic language skills’. The first theme was more prominent among most respondents except HS lecturers, while the second one mostly derived from EAW and HS lecturers and students’ responses. In addition, one rather interesting additional theme was also

generated after two of the student respondents shared unfavourable views of EAW. The theme is ‘students have needs which were unmet by EAW’.

The results from the questionnaires added additional information to the respondents’ perceptions towards academic writing needs. Two cross-tabulation tables (Table 30 and Table 31) were used to present the data. Table 30 gives us information on how EAW lecturers, faculty lecturers and EAW students perceived the importance of academic writing, and Table 31 depicts their attitudes towards the importance of writing skills that were outlined in EAW course objectives. It was clear throughout the analysis that most respondents in all groups mainly agreed with writing being the most important language skill for students. Most of them also generally agreed with the specific research writing skills in the EAW course objectives.

To conclude, it can be said that generally, most EAW, ENGIN and HS lecturers as well as students perceived the research writing skills as important academic writing needs among the students, and writing as the most important skill for the students in their studies.

4.6 Research Question 2

The second research question (RQ 2) is:

2. What are the EAW lecturers’, the EAW/ENG students’ and the EAW/HS students’ perceptions of the EAW course?

Two subquestions were developed to answer RQ 2:

- 2.1 What are the EAW lecturers’ perceptions of the EAW course in the context of EGAP and ESAP?
- 2.2 What are the EAW lecturers’, the EAW/ENG students’ and the EAW/HS students’ perceptions of the EAW course and student needs?

4.6.1 EAW lecturers' perceptions of EAW, EGAP and ESAP.

During the interviews, EAW lecturers were asked about their awareness of two approaches in EAP course design – English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP). The knowledge of these two approaches is deemed important for teachers of EAP, as it has been discussed by many EAP practitioners in relation to EAP course design and best approaches (e.g., Basturkmen, 2003 & 2006; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Hyland, 2006; Spack, 1988; Widdowson, 1983). Initial responses from all respondents revealed that none of them knew about the two approaches at all. However, after some explanations of the meanings and differences between the two, the respondents had an understanding of what they were. It was not difficult to explain to them as they were quite familiar with the concept of general approaches and specific approaches to academic writing.

After the lecturers agreed that they understood what EGAP and ESAP were, they were asked which approach EAW was associated with. Their responses were categorised as either EGAP or ESAP, and their reasons for their choice were analysed and referred to as Present Situation Analysis (PSA). Some respondents extended their responses with suggestions as to which approach EAW should be based on, and these responses were analysed and referred to as Target Situation Analysis (TSA). Following the analysis, the responses were categorised into several categories, which were later used to form the themes to represent the lecturers' perceptions. Initially, the analysis showed that more than half of EAW lecturers perceived EAW as using EGAP as its approach, where 10 out of 15 lecturers provided responses which were congruent with the notion that EAW is an EGAP course. The rest of the lecturers provided answers which reflected misunderstandings of the approach used by EAW and thus, were not included in the findings.

The responses with extended responses were given more focus as they offered more details to the issue being investigated. Hence, the emerging themes are: (1) EAW is an EGAP course and should be changed to focus on ESAP; and (2) EAW is an EGAP course and should be maintained as it is.

4.6.1.1 Theme 1: EAW is an EGAP course and should be changed to focus on ESAP.

Ten EAW lecturers perceived EAW as an EGAP course, and five of them believed that EAW should be changed to use ESAP in its approach. Each one of them had a different reason as to why they thought so. One of them asserted that ESAP would then better cater to different faculties. After describing EAW as an EGAP course, she continued, "... it can be improved to ESAP so that, you know, we can sort of cater to different kulliyah. That would be nice" (LEAW11, Lines 124 – 125). Another lecturer believed that ESAP would help students according to disciplines. She said, "Yea ESAP. I mean if we really want to help the students according to their disciplines, we should go for the formal... that kind of English" (LEAW2, Lines 86 – 87). Moreover, another respondent was looking further ahead to students' future career in giving her reason why EAW should be an ESAP course. She said, "Because in that way, the... they can learn languages that can be very useful for their future career purpose later" (LEAW8, Lines 112 – 113). These three lecturers are among the five respondents who believed that the current EGAP-based EAW should be changed to use ESAP in its approach.

4.6.1.2 Theme 2: EAW is an EGAP course and should remain as it is.

Out of 10 EAW lecturers who perceived EAW as an EGAP course, only two were of the view that EAW should remain as it is. Their reasons for this were – EGAP-based EAW would create an awareness of the differences among students, and it is better to standardise the course. One of them said that,

... for the past three semesters, I've been having a classroom of mixed kulliyahs. So, I could see how these ENGIN students learn from the humanistic students. And, yea... and they also are interested to do something else like, other than... topic related to their kulliyah. For example, one student from ENGIN, he did a study on the community - no interaction between international and local students, because he has always been questioning the interaction between the international and local students. So, he did the study on that. He did a research on that. He wrote, he read articles on local and international students'

interactions. And then he made, he wrote a very good paper. (LEAW13, Lines 119 – 127).

In addition, when another lecturer was asked why she believed EAW should remain as an EGAP course, she responded, “It’s better to standardise it” (LEAW14, Line 112). Even though not representing the majority of the respondents, these are what these two lecturers thought that led them to believe, with regard to TSA, that EAW should be maintained as an EGAP course.

4.6.1.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, the themes that emerged from the responses to the first subquestion for RQ2, which is ‘What are the EAW lecturers’ perceptions of the EAW course in the context of EGAP and ESAP?’ revealed mixed feelings among the lecturers about the approach that the EAW course should adopt. Even though initially they were not familiar with the concepts of EGAP and ESAP, they were able to compare the context of EAW with EGAP and ESAP once they were given an explanation about the two approaches. The theme that emerged from most respondents is ‘EAW is an EGAP course and should be changed to focus on ESAP’.

4.6.2 EAW lecturers’, EAW/ENGIN students’ and EAW/HS students’ perceptions of EAW and student needs.

This is one of the most important parts of the issue that this research is trying to investigate. The answers to this question are hoped to shed light on the issue of the role of EAW in catering to the students’ academic writing needs at their faculties. For the lecturers, they were specifically asked about the relevance of EAW to academic writing and the relevance of research writing skills in EAW to academic writing needed by students in their faculties, whereas for the students, they were asked whether they could apply what they learned in EAW to what they had to do in their faculties, whether EAW in any way helped them with their writing in their faculties.

Four themes emerged from their responses in the interviews. One of the themes, which emerged from the majority of the respondents’ responses, represents a positive

view of EAW, while the other three are more critical of the course. The themes are: (1) the student need for EAW is due to their need to do research; (2) EAW could meet student needs but only in some ways; (3) EAW caters to student needs only for some faculties; and (4) students need an EAW course that focuses more on language.

4.6.2.1 Theme 1: The student need for EAW is due to the need to do research.

This theme emerged from most of the respondents' responses from both EAW lecturers and students. A total of 13 respondents - nine out of 15 lecturers and four out of eight students - shared the perception that students need EAW as they need to do research. During the analysis, four categories comprising similar responses became apparent. The categories are 'EAW for research writing', 'EAW for students to continue doing research', 'EAW for students who enjoy doing research', and 'EAW for exposure to research'.

The category that consists of most responses is 'EAW for research writing'. Responses from four lecturers and four students were grouped in this category. Below are some of the examples of responses given by the lecturers when they were asked about the relevance of EAW to student academic writing:

First of all, I think most of the students here, they are required to write a final year project or research paper, in which, what I found is that, we have students who produce good projects. But it was written terribly. They don't know the proper key words, vocabulary, structure, so it was all over the place - based on what I have read, my students' work. So, I think, this course is very much relevant to what they are doing. (LEAW10, Lines 97 – 101);

It's a medium. It's a good medium because if you want to take academic writing per se, then you have to suit the academic writing for each. If you talk about academic writing in formal writing, right, then you have to suit formal writing according to kulliyahs, because each kulliyah have their own different way, ok. But if you do research, somehow or rather, everyone does research. (LEAW6, Lines 73 – 77);

Because, in their kulliyah courses they have to do research, they have to do assignment. (LEAW5, Lines 124 – 125).

In addition, responses from four students also reflected the same idea. Three out of four EAW/HS students expressed this view. The other one was an EAW/ENGIN student. When the EAW/ENGIN student was asked whether the research skills in EAW were relevant to his course, he responded,

Just for the writing of the research. Because if I'm... for my FYP I have to do a lot of simulations on computers and things, and it doesn't - EAW does not really help me with those things. But for writing the report and writing the research that I've done, it will help me a lot (SENG1, Lines 123 – 126).

When one EAW/HS student was asked whether she was able to relate what she learned in EAW to what she needed in her studies, she answered, “I think just for... how to write the research. Maybe it's just the writing - how we want to develop our writing skill. Just only writing. There's no more” (SHS4, Lines 127 – 128). Another student gave examples how EAW met her needs to apply research writing techniques in her faculty subjects. She said, “I can apply the citation techniques, how to do the data analysis, the graph, the references, the introduction, what should I put, the gap, and when I cite, I have to comment. So, that really helps in my studies. Because my studies really... also concern about that thing” (SHS3, Lines 141 – 144).

For the second category, ‘EAW for students to continue doing research’, three lecturers shared similar ideas in their responses which placed them in this category. In responding to the question asking about the relevance of EAW to student academic writing need, one EAW lecturer said, “... I think it's relevant and students need this, especially if we want, we intend for them to continue this study, write papers, produce... and do their own research” (LEAW1, Lines 44 – 45). Another lecturer expressed a similar view as she said, “... because especially for those who erm... for those who have intentions to pursue study to higher level, especially master students and PhD. I even

have many students, they actually plan to, you know, to climb higher. So yea, of course this course is totally needed” (LEAW15, Lines 68 – 71).

The other two categories - ‘EAW for students who enjoy doing research’ and ‘EAW for exposure to research’ - actually represent responses from only two lecturers; one lecturer believed that students needed EAW as they could experience the excitement of doing research, and the other simply said that EAW was relevant to student academic writing as it exposed students to research.

4.6.2.2 Theme 2: EAW could meet student needs but only in some ways.

This is one of the three themes that can be considered critical of EAW. This theme derived from responses from one EAW lecturer and three EAW/ENGIN students – the majority out of four EAW/ENGIN students. The lecturer, although initially claiming that EAW was relevant to academic writing, admitted that the course was only related to some of the needs but not really to research. He expressed his view as shown below:

Research per se I would say that... that is not very much related. But what comes after that would be... or what comes before that would be much related. For example, how do you prepare, how do you plan, and then your objectives and everything. Ok. And then how you analyse... that would be very much related. But the research itself, maybe not... not very relevant to what we are doing. But of course we don't look at the research by itself. We look at... as a whole.
(LEAW7, Lines 75 – 80).

One EAW/ENGIN student found it hard to explain why she thought EAW was only helpful in some ways. In her explanation, she said, “The formatting is kind of different, but for some students, they can manage to relate. But for the degree level, you know, in the degree level you want to see something that you can relate directly. But when I take that course, I can... I can relate but I need to tweak it a little bit. It is kind of helpful, but not so much. I can't describe” (SENG3, Lines 79 – 82). On the other hand, another EAW/ENGIN described EAW as not being specific to the topics in his faculty.

He said, "... it is relevant but it's not specific. It's not specific to my kulliyah. So let's say for example, if it's under the kulliyah, then the topic will be more specific or more scientific, so will involve more numbers, and more quantitative analysis, maybe using different software for analysing. That if it is specific to my kulliyah. But it's that, right now it's more, much, much more general" (SENG4, Lines 75 – 79).

4.6.2.3 Theme 3: EAW caters to student needs only for some faculties.

This is another theme that is also critical of EAW. Three EAW lecturers shared similar views that expressed this theme. One lecturer responded to the question on the relevance of research writing skills in EAW to academic writing needed by students in the faculties by saying,

So I believe... in term, if you look at in the general perspective... all kulliyahs will... somehow find it important, but in certain erm... particular programs you know they may, students may not find the relevance. (LEAW4, Lines 100 – 103).

On the other hand, another lecturer who shared this view gave examples of the faculties that might find the course relevant to their needs and vice versa. She said,

In the kulliyahs? Not all kulliyahs though. For instance, for Human Sciences, or people in IRKHS kulliyah, they really, really need this. That's why also in the kulliyah it's compulsory for them to take research methodology. But unlike students in, yes, again, Engineering, or maybe some other... some other kulliyahs I am not aware of, ok, maybe they don't really require this. They don't really see the need to have this... this course. (LEAW8, Lines 81 – 85).

4.6.2.4 Theme 4: Students need an EAW course that focuses more on language.

The final theme that is also critical of EAW emerged from responses by only two lecturers - the smallest number of respondents who shared the same view. Both of

them viewed EAW as focusing on the research part more than the language bit. One of them said,

... they have got to change some aspects of it in order to make it more relevant, you know. In the sense that erm... we're mis-shooting things, I think. Because their priority now is on the research, quite not so much on the language part. We really have to go on the language part. (LEAW12, Lines 58 – 61).

The other lecturer also perceived teaching research more than language as an issue in the relevance of EAW to student academic writing needs. She asserted,

It is not hundred per cent relevant. Maybe about fifty to sixty per cent. Well, they need... they do need some sort of a format but you don't exactly... kind of, you know, push them to follow the format of a research paper. What we should be looking at would be, you know, are supposed to use this word instead of that word, that's it, that's it basically. But we are not doing that right now. (LEAW9, Lines 95 – 99).

4.6.2.5 Conclusion.

In short, to answer this second subquestion of RQ 2 - What are the EAW lecturers', the EAW/ENGIN students' and the EAW/HS students' perceptions of the EAW course and student needs? - EAW lecturers and students were asked how they perceived EAW as a writing course that is relevant in meeting the students' academic writing needs. The analysis of the respondents' responses yielded four themes. The themes are: (1) the student need for EAW is due to their need to do research; (2) EAW could meet student needs but only in some ways; (3) EAW caters to student needs only of some faculties; and (4) students need an EAW course that focuses more on language. These findings can be categorised as target needs (TSA) as they generally focus more on the outcomes of learning. It is important to stress that even though only the first theme reflects a positive view of EAW, the theme emerged from the responses of the most number of respondents. This is considered significant in thematic analysis as

looking at repetition has been one of the most common criteria for establishing a theme (Ryan & Bernard, 2003, as cited in Bryman, 2012).

4.6.3 Questionnaire results on EAW lecturers and students' perceptions of the EAW course.

This part of the questionnaire was only included in the EAW lecturers' and EAW students' questionnaire, as they were the ones who were directly involved in EAW. It aims to investigate what EAW lecturers and EAW students from ENGIN and HS thought of EAW as a course that taught English language for academic writing. It contained attitudinal statements that required students to choose one option from five options on a Likert-scale format. The results are presented in Table 32.

Table 32. *The EAW Course: EAW Lecturers' and EAW Students' Perceptions*

			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree	Row Total
1. The objectives of EAW are clear.	EAW Lecturers (n=26)	Freq	0	0	2	18	6	26
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	7.70%	69.20%	23.10%	100.00%
	EAW/ENGIN Students (n=47)	Freq	0	1	7	33	6	47
		Row %	0.00%	2.10%	14.90%	70.20%	12.80%	100.00%
	EAW/HS Students (n=45)	Freq	0	1	4	30	10	45
		Row %	0.00%	2.20%	8.90%	66.70%	22.20%	100.00%
2. The content of EAW is in line with its objectives.	EAW Lecturers (n=26)	Freq	0	0	0	22	4	26
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	84.60%	15.40%	100.00%
	EAW/ENGIN Students (n=47)	Freq	0	1	5	32	9	47
		Row %	0.00%	2.13%	10.64%	68.09%	19.15%	100.00%
	EAW/HS Students (n=44)	Freq	0	1	5	28	10	44
		Row %	0.00%	2.30%	11.40%	63.60%	22.70%	100.00%
3. The materials used in EAW (e.g., notes, books, etc.) are effective to achieve its objectives.	EAW Lecturers (n=26)	Freq	0	2	4	19	1	26
		Row %	0.00%	7.70%	15.40%	73.10%	3.80%	100.00%
	EAW/ENGIN Students (n=47)	Freq	0	4	2	34	7	47
		Row %	0.00%	8.50%	4.30%	72.30%	14.90%	100.00%
	EAW/HS Students (n=45)	Freq	0	1	8	24	12	45
		Row %	0.00%	2.20%	17.80%	53.30%	26.70%	100.00%

4. The amount of materials used in EAW is sufficient.	EAW Lecturers (n=26)	Freq	0	7	4	13	2	26
		Row %	0.00%	26.90%	15.40%	50.00%	7.70%	100.00%
	EAW/ENGIN Students (n=45)	Freq	1	4	5	29	6	45
		Row %	2.22%	8.89%	11.11%	64.44%	13.33%	100.00%
	EAW/HS Students (n=45)	Freq	0	1	11	24	9	45
		Row %	0.00%	2.20%	24.44%	53.33%	20.00%	100.00%
5. The time allocated for EAW per week is sufficient.	EAW Lecturers (n=26)	Freq	2	11	1	11	1	26
		Row %	7.70%	42.30%	3.80%	42.30%	3.80%	100.00%
	EAW/ENGIN Students (n=46)	Freq	0	1	3	33	9	46
		Row %	0.00%	2.20%	6.50%	71.70%	19.60%	100.00%
	EAW/HS Students (n=45)	Freq	1	4	3	27	10	45
		Row %	2.20%	8.90%	6.70%	60.00%	22.20%	100.00%
6. The assessment (e.g., assignments, exams, etc.) in EAW is effective to achieve its objectives.	EAW Lecturers (n=26)	Freq	0	4	2	19	1	26
		Row %	0.00%	15.40%	7.70%	73.10%	3.80%	100.00%
	EAW/ENGIN Students (n=47)	Freq	0	3	5	34	5	47
		Row %	0.00%	6.38%	10.64%	72.34%	10.64%	100.00%
	EAW/HS Students (n=43)	Freq	1	2	7	24	9	43
		Row %	2.30%	4.70%	16.30%	55.80%	20.90%	100.00%
7. I/The lecturers know exactly what to teach in EAW.	EAW Lecturers (n=26)	Freq	0	0	3	20	3	26
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	11.50%	76.90%	11.50%	100.00%
	EAW/ENGIN Students (n=47)	Freq	0	0	1	29	17	47
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	2.10%	61.70%	36.20%	100.00%
	EAW/HS Students (n=43)	Freq	0	0	5	21	17	43
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	11.63%	48.84%	39.53%	100.00%
8. I am/The lecturers are able to teach EAW confidently.	EAW Lecturers (n=26)	Freq	0	0	1	20	5	26
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	3.80%	76.90%	19.20%	100.00%
	EAW/ENGIN Students (n=46)	Freq	0	0	0	25	21	46
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	54.30%	45.70%	100.00%
	EAW/HS Students (n=45)	Freq	0	0	2	22	21	45
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	4.40%	48.90%	46.70%	100.00%
9. EAW is relevant to my studies in my kulliyah/the students' academic studies in their kulliyahs.	EAW Lecturers (n=26)	Freq	0	2	3	13	8	26
		Row %	0.00%	7.70%	11.50%	50.00%	30.80%	100.00%
	EAW/ENGIN Students (n=46)	Freq	0	1	3	36	6	46
		Row %	0.00%	2.20%	6.50%	78.30%	13.00%	100.00%
	EAW/HS Students (n=42)	Freq	0	0	6	23	13	42
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	14.30%	54.80%	31.00%	100.00%

10. EAW and academic studies in kulliyahs should be related.	EAW Lecturers (n=26)	Freq	0	0	1	13	12	26
		Row %	0.00%	0.00%	3.80%	50.00%	46.20%	100.00%
	EAW/ENGIN Students (n=47)	Freq	0	1	5	31	10	47
		Row %	0.00%	2.10%	10.60%	66.00%	21.30%	100.00%
	EAW/HS Students (n=44)	Freq	0	1	3	25	15	44
		Row %	0.00%	2.30%	6.80%	56.80%	34.10%	100.00%

Abbreviations. Freq = frequency

In Table 32, the first statement was ‘The objectives of EAW are clear’. All EAW lecturers and students should have been provided with the EAW course outline which comprised the course objectives. In fact, the lecturers were supposed to explain to the students about the course objectives at the beginning of the course. The results revealed that all three groups had the majority of the respondents choosing ‘Agree’ as their answer. There were 18 (69.20%) EAW lecturers who chose this option. Six strongly agreed with the statement, and two were undecided. This came as quite a surprise as I thought most of them would strongly agree with the statement, as EAW lecturers were expected to be the ones who would know the objectives of the course they were teaching more than anyone else. Thirty-three EAW/ENGIN and 30 EAW/HS chose this option. Each group had one student who disagreed with this statement. This suggests that EAW course objectives were not made very clear to the people involved in it. It may also be because some lecturers and students either found it hard to understand, or were ignorant of the objectives, at least in the case of the research subjects.

The second statement was ‘The content of EAW is in line with its objectives’. This statement is actually an extension of the first one. I wanted to know if the respondents perceived what was being taught in EAW as matching with what was outlined in the course objectives. The results were similar to the first one; the majority of respondents in all three groups chose ‘Agree’. There were 22 or 84.60% from the EAW lecturers’ group, 32 or 68.09% from the EAW/ENGIN students’ group, and 28 or 63.60% from the EAW/HS students’ group in this category. There were also nine students in the EAW/ENGIN group and ten students in the EAW/HS group who strongly agreed with the statement. This time all EAW lecturers either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, but one student in the EAW/ENGIN and EAW/HS groups disagreed, and five in each group were undecided. However, in general, we can

say that most respondents found what was being taught in EAW reflected the objectives of the course.

The third statement was ‘The materials used in EAW (e.g., notes, books, etc.) are effective to achieve its objectives’. Again, this statement was also related to the subjects’ knowledge of the course objectives. During the semester when the study was conducted, there were no specific text books used for the course. The lecturers were provided with notes, which they shared with the students via an open-source learning platform, known as Moodle. The results were again similar to the previous two statements. The majority in all groups still chose the ‘Agree’ option. Nineteen EAW lecturers or 73.10% of them were in this category, together with 34 or 72.30% EAW/ENGIN students and 24 or 53.30% EAW/HS students. There were also a number of people in categories other than ‘Agree’ and ‘Strongly Agree’. Two EAW lecturers disagreed and four were undecided. There were four EAW/ENGIN students who disagreed and two who were undecided, whereas eight EAW/HS students were undecided and one disagreed. Even though on the whole we can say that the materials used in the course were perceived useful to achieve the course objectives, the results also suggest that there are possibly some issues with the materials that could be looked into.

The next statement, ‘The amount of materials used in EAW is sufficient’, revealed more diverse results in all the groups. This statement was aimed at investigating whether EAW lecturers and students thought they had enough materials in the course. The results showed that, similar to the previous items, most of the respondents chose ‘Agree’ in all groups. From the EAW lecturers’ group, 13 of them or 50% were in this category. Twenty-nine or 64.44% of EAW/ENGIN students together with 24 or 53.33% of EAW/HS students felt this way. Two EAW lecturers strongly agreed, but there were four who were undecided and seven, which was quite a big number for the group of 26 lecturers, who disagreed. The EAW/ENGIN group had one who strongly disagreed, in addition to four who disagreed, five who were undecided and six who strongly agreed. For EAW/HS students, the second biggest number was in the group of ‘Undecided’, with 11 students in this category. Other than that, there was one who disagreed and nine who strongly agreed. The diverse results indicating various

attitudes towards the amount of materials in EAW suggests something could be done by CELPAD to look at this matter.

The fifth statement was on time allocation ('The time allocated for EAW per week is sufficient'). For this statement, interestingly, the pattern of response from EAW lecturers changed. There was the same number of respondents who agreed and disagreed. Eleven lecturers, or 42.30%, were in each category. This rather strongly suggests that there was quite an issue with the time allocation for EAW classes per week among EAW lecturers. During the study, students had two sessions of EAW per week, and each session was one and a half hours long. In addition, two lecturers strongly disagreed with this, compared to only one who strongly agreed. One was undecided on this statement. On the other hand, most EAW/ENGIN and EAW/HS students chose 'Agree' to represent their attitudes. Although there were some other respondents in other categories, especially the ones for those who disagreed, the number was small. Most of them apparently thought that the duration for EAW per week was already sufficient.

The next statement was on the assessment. The respondents were asked for their attitude towards this statement: 'The assessment (e.g., assignments, exams, etc.) in EAW is effective to achieve its objectives'. At the time of the study, there were four types of assessment. Students had to sit for a mid-semester examination (20% of the overall marks), produce a research paper (25% of the overall marks), do a multimedia oral presentation of the research paper (15% of the overall marks), and sit for the final examination (40% of the overall marks). Even though the final examination had the greatest weightage of the assessment, the main thing that the students worked on throughout the whole semester was the research paper. In fact, the students not only had to write the research, but they also had to present it, which gives us a total of 40% weightage as well if both marks were added together. For this statement, the majority of all groups chose 'Agree' as their answer. There were 19 lecturers or 73.10% in the EAW lecturers' group, 34 students or 72.34% in the EAW/ENGIN students' group, and 24 students or 55.80% in the EAW/HS students' group. The rest of the respondents' responses were in various categories. Four EAW lecturers, three EAW/ENGIN students and two EAW/HS students disagreed with the statement. The EAW/HS group had the

most diverse responses as one also strongly disagreed, seven were undecided and nine strongly agreed with the assessment in EAW. The results generally show that most respondents felt that the assessment managed to reflect the objectives of EAW, but the number of respondents who did not think so or were undecided suggests it may be worth reviewing.

The next two statements were about what EAW lecturers thought of themselves, and what the students thought of EAW lecturers with regard to EAW. The statements were 'I/The lecturers know exactly what to teach in EAW' and 'I am/The lecturers are able to teach EAW confidently'. For the first statement, out of 26 lecturers, 20 lecturers (76.90%) agreed and 3 lecturers (11.50%) strongly agreed with the statement. This means that the majority of EAW lecturers believed that they know exactly what to teach in EAW. None of the EAW lecturers disagree with the statement, but there were three who were undecided about it. Even though not many, the fact that there were lecturers who were undecided could suggest a few things – inadequate training and lecturers' incompetence could be two of them. From the perspective of the students, none of the EAW/ENGIN and EAW/HS students disagreed with the statement. The majority of them agreed with it. The EAW/ENGIN group had 29 (61.70%) who agreed and 17 (36.20%) who strongly agreed, while EAW/HS had 21 (48.84%) and 17 (39.53%) who strongly agreed. However, one EAW/ENGIN student and five EAW/HS students were undecided about their attitudes towards the statement.

The majority in all three groups also agreed with the statement 'I am/The lecturers are able to teach EAW confidently'. There were 20 EAW lecturers or 76.90% who answered 'Agree', and five or 19.20% who chose 'Strongly Agree'. This indicates that a large number of lecturers were comfortable in delivering the lessons in the course. There was one, however, who was undecided. All EAW/ENGIN students perceived EAW lecturers as confident in teaching the course. In fact, quite a number of them strongly agreed with this, as 21 or 45.70% chose 'Strongly Agree'. The number who agreed was just slightly higher, with 25 or 54.30%. EAW/HS students also shared quite similar results, except that there was one who was undecided. Twenty-two of them (48.90%) selected 'Agree', and 21 students (46.70%) answered 'Strongly Agree'. What these results tell us is that, generally, EAW lecturers managed to appear confident when

they taught EAW, a positive trait which should have contributed to a smooth delivery of the course.

The last two statements were to determine the subjects' attitudes towards EAW and its relationship to the students' studies. The statements were 'EAW is relevant to my studies in my kulliyah/the students' academic studies in their kulliyahs' and 'EAW and academic studies in kulliyahs should be related'. Although the majority of all respondents agreed with the first statement, there were also a small number of responses that expressed disagreement and uncertainties. Among the EAW lecturers, 13 (50%) and eight (30.80%) were in the 'Agree' and 'Strongly Agree' categories respectively. Even though they might not have a concrete knowledge of what their student writing needs in their faculties were, they believed that what was being taught in EAW was able to fulfill the needs of their students in terms of writing in their faculties. Two lecturers answered 'Disagree' and three lecturers were undecided. On the students' side, a majority of 36 students (78.30%) from the EAW/ENGIN group agreed with this statement. One student disagreed and three students were undecided. The EAW/HS group had a majority of 'Agree' (23 students/54.80%) and quite a large number of 'Strongly Agree' (13/31%) responses. None of them disagreed, but there were six who were undecided about this statement. If we compare the three groups, EAW/HS students were the group that showed the most positive attitude towards the statement.

The last statement also had the majority of respondents in all groups choosing 'Agree' to represent their attitudes. Most of them agreed that EAW should be related to the students' academic studies in their faculties. Thirteen EAW lecturers or 50% of them chose 'Agree', while 12 or 46.20% had 'Strongly Agree' as their choice. There was only one who was neither in agreement nor disagreement, but was in the 'Undecided' category. EAW/ENGIN and EAW/HS students were similar, except that they had one student in each group who disagreed. Thirty-one or 66% of EAW/ENGIN students agreed, apart from ten who strongly agreed and five who were undecided. For EAW/HS students, there were 25 or 56.80% of them who agreed. There were also fifteen who strongly agreed and three who were undecided. It can be well understood why the majority of respondents in all groups would agree on this statement, but the existence of some who disagreed and were undecided could be the basis for further

investigation.

4.7 Conclusion to Research Question 2

The second research question is: ‘2. What are the EAW lecturers’, the EAW/ENGIN students’ and the EAW/HS students’ perceptions of the EAW course?’. This research question has been divided into two subquestions: ‘2.1. What are the EAW lecturers’ perceptions of the EAW course in the context of EGAP and ESAP?’; and ‘2.2. What are the EAW lecturers’, the EAW/ENGIN students’ and the EAW/HS students’ perceptions of the EAW course and student needs?’.

For the first subquestion, the emerging themes from the interviews with EAW lecturers are: (1) EAW is an EGAP course and should be changed to focus on ESAP; (2) EAW is an EGAP course and should remain as it is. The themes were developed after the lecturers gave extended responses to the question about whether they thought of EAW as an EGAP or ESAP course. In general, more than half of EAW lecturers perceived EAW as using EGAP as its approach. Out of 10 who had this perception, half of them believed that it should be changed to be based on ESAP.

For the second subquestion, the analysis of EAW lecturers and students’ responses in the interviews yielded four themes. The themes are: (1) the student need for EAW is due to their need to do research; (2) EAW could fulfill student needs but only in some ways; (3) EAW caters to student needs only of some faculties; and (4) students need an EAW course that focuses more on language. The first is the only theme that reflects a positive view of EAW. However, it emerged from the responses of the most number of respondents.

Furthermore, questionnaires were administered to EAW lecturers as well as EAW/ENGIN and EAW/HS students to investigate their perceptions towards EAW. In general, it can be said that most of them had a positive view towards the course, as most of them agreed with how EAW was delivered as a course to teach English for academic writing.

4.8 Research Question 3

The third research question (RQ 3) is:

3. How do the EAW lecturers', the faculty lecturers', and students' perceptions of EAW indicate power relations?

This research question is addressed using Benesch's (2001a) rights analysis as a lens to uncover underlying elements of power relations. Similar to Helmer (2013), the present study did not create rights analysis instruments per se, but used the framework to interpret the interview data. The following findings revealed evidence of power relations in EAW from the perspectives of the lecturers and students in this study. They will be discussed according to two main themes that emerged from the data. The themes are: power struggles and power relationships.

4.8.1 Theme 1: Power struggles.

The first theme, power struggles, emerged from the EAW lecturers' and the students' interview data. Power struggles can be related to the notion of "the classroom as a site of struggle" (Benesch, 1999, p. 315) and "English as a site of struggle and resistance" (Benesch, 2001a, p. 55), where questioning is an area of struggle over who is in control. According to Benesch (2001a), the notion 'power struggles' derives from Foucault's concepts of power relations. Foucault views power in terms of the relationship between power and resistance – they coexist and they are counterparts. His view challenges the traditional assumption that views power in terms of the relationship between a party dominating its subordinates. In this present study, the theme 'power struggles' represents the struggles of the lecturers and students in an academic setting. Other than power struggles, the analysis also looked for evidence of resistance. The findings from this rights analysis revealed that power struggles were evident between the stakeholders, but the resistance was not translated into actions, such as questioning (Benesch, 1999) or negotiation (Starfield, 2013).

In the context of this study, power struggles can be interpreted as how the stakeholders indicated their dissatisfaction and problems with the EAW course (power

struggles), and how they responded to them (resistance). The relationships between power and resistance could be identified in situations involving the stakeholders from different levels of the hierarchy. In particular, power struggles were indicated by the EAW lecturers (with the management), and the students (with the lecturers). During the interviews, they shared dissatisfaction and problems related to EAW even when they showed positive attitudes towards the topics. On the surface, their dissatisfaction and problems appeared as comments about the course. However, consistent occurrence of similar comments from many lecturers and students (their dissatisfaction, particularly) indicated an underlying element of power relations – power struggles. Power struggles can also be translated as their powerlessness to question the people who occupy a higher level in the institutional hierarchy. In terms of resistance, it was discovered that in dealing with dissatisfaction, they persisted without taking any actions signalling resistance. Despite the power struggles, they did not do anything to challenge the practices or indicate resistance. There was no indication of questioning nor negotiation from the people who were at the lower level of the hierarchy in their interaction with higher level people. The fact that this involves many stakeholders shows that power struggles were evident, although not explicitly, in the academic setting of the university.

The two following subthemes discuss the EAW lecturers' power struggles with the management, and the students' power struggles with the EAW lecturers. Evidence of power struggles is presented in some excerpts from the interviews. For ease of reference, parts in the excerpts which contain the central ideas are underlined.

4.8.1.1 EAW lecturers' power struggles.

As mentioned in section 1.2.2, the main decisions pertaining to the EAW course (especially what should be taught) were taken by the senate, which is the university top management (The International Islamic University Malaysia, 2017). Most of the EAW lecturers that I interviewed had revealed their opinions about teaching EAW after the format was changed by the management back in 2011 (see section 1.2.2). Many of the lecturers' responses revealed consistent negative perceptions towards the course. The lecturers, who were from different levels of experience, shared their opinions when they

were asked about their experience teaching EAW and their comments about the course. Below are the excerpts from the interviews.

1. It started with erm... when I first started teaching in 2000... it was EAP at that time. Erm... it seemed a bit more clear. But, in the past few years, when it was restructured, and it became the research course, and that's when things became a bit haywire. Because we ourselves are not researchers, and we are supposed to teach a research course. Erm... so EAW for me now is a bit, I don't know, off, because... is it a writing course? Or is it a research course?

(LEAW12, Lines 40 – 45)

2. Erm... but they have got to change some aspects of it in order to make it more relevant, you know. In the sense that erm... we're misshooting things, I think. Because their priority now is on the research, quite not so much on the language part. We really have to go on the language part.

(LEAW12, Lines 58 – 61)

3. Right now EAW has to change its focus. More on writing instead on the research. So the instructors know what they are doing, instead of, you know, because it's like the blind, sometimes, it's like the blind leading the blind. I'm not talking about all, alright. But some of us feel that way. Erm... because of, again, that drastic changes that were made erm... in a very short span of time, you know.

(LEAW12, Lines 122 – 126)

On the surface, the excerpts above revealed the EAW lecturers' dissatisfaction and problems with the EAW course. In the first excerpt, LEAW12 revealed her opinions about EAW. With 12 years of experience teaching EAP/EAW, she can be considered as an expert in teaching the course. Her struggle was indicated by some comments suggesting her dissatisfaction for having to teach despite not having sufficient knowledge. Her comments like: “we ourselves are not researchers, and we are supposed

to teach a research course”; “we're misshooting things”; and “it's like the blind leading the blind” are strong statements that indicate dissatisfaction and powerlessness. Additionally, when she said “they have got to change some aspects of it” and “Right now EAW has to change its focus”, it suggests that despite her frustration, she could only hope for changes (by the management). There was no indication that she had voiced her opinions on the matter to the management. Here, her power struggle was indirectly demonstrated by her comments, which show dissatisfaction and powerlessness.

4. Erm... generally it is a good course but challenging, ok, and I myself not satisfied. Every semester I teach, I'm not satisfied because I cannot cater to their need ok, especially in terms of language proficiency. They made a lot of mistakes but we don't have time to specifically yea I mean, of course they can come and see me to discuss but just that they don't have time.

(LEAW5, Lines 240 – 243)

5. Erm...define easy [giggled]. Ok. Err... ok, let's talk about the one that we are doing now. Erm... I think after the third semester, the third to fourth semester, then only I was quite... erm... I found it very comfortable teaching it. Before that, it was quite a struggling experience, because erm... you know, doing something that you are not really an expert. It took me quite a number of digging, you know, doing homework, discussing with other colleagues so...

(LEAW11, Lines 35 – 40)

LEAW5 is another lecturer who shared a similar situation. She had taught EAP/EAW for 13 years, which makes her an expert like LEAW12. However, despite being a highly experienced and a senior member of the staff at the language centre, she also faced the same situation where she had to accept the teaching responsibility, although she was not satisfied with the course. She stated, “Every semester I teach, I'm not satisfied because I cannot cater to their (students’) need ok, especially in terms of language proficiency”. Another very experienced lecturer, LEAW11, with 10 years’

experience in EAP/EAW, also shared her struggle, “it was quite a struggling experience, because erm... you know, doing something that you are not really an expert”. These lecturers represented the most experienced writing lecturers whom can be categorised as experts in EAP/EAW at the language centre. In fact, all of them held important positions at the centre. Nonetheless, their comments suggest that they were powerless when it comes to questioning the higher level people who decided what they had to teach.

6. ... I think when we changed to EAW, the research form, I think at the beginning everybody was in a total shock. So, most of us were not very familiar back then.

(LEAW10, Lines 23 – 24)

7. It's just that a lot of things to be covered and to be remembered. So I won't say it's (the EAW course) easy. It's definitely not easy of course.

(LEAW7, Lines 28 – 29)

8. Err... initially it (teaching EAW) was not (easy). It was very taxing and then it was very... stressful because they are a lot of things that I did not know about this especially when you have to teach them the methods, you know... the research itself when they changed this course into writing a research paper, that one. Because we ourselves are not used to writing for research paper, right? I mean for journal to... as if you are publishing in a journal. So, you had to learn as you are teaching.

(LEAW13, Lines 31 – 36)

LEAW10, who had taught EAW for eight years, and LEAW7 and LEAW13, who both had four years' experience teaching the course, also indicated power struggles from their views about EAW. Describing their experience teaching the course, LEAW10 said, “...when we changed to EAW, the research form, I think at the beginning everybody was in a total shock. So, most of us were not very familiar back then”, while LEAW7 stated, “It's just that a lot of things to be covered and to be

remembered”. These comments representing dissatisfaction and problems can be interpreted as indicating power struggles. Similarly, LEAW13 also struggled to teach EAW as though it was forced upon her. Her comments “It was very taxing and then it was very... stressful because they are a lot of things that I did not know about this especially when you have to teach them the methods”, and “we ourselves are not used to writing for research paper” indicate her struggles with teaching the course.

9. Erm... currently, this course is more research-based. Perhaps we should make it more language-based, because we are language teachers. And we ourselves are not aware of err research methodology. Teaching this course sometimes makes you think that you are teaching research methodology. So, I think it should be converted into a purely, academic, English for academic writing course.

(LEAW14, Lines 146 – 150)

10. Ermm... ok. Well, for me, academic writing is basically an opinion essay with references included in it. That's it. It's not like what we are teaching the students is actually... it's... it's like... Ok, for me, when you talk about academic writing, it will have to be on your opinion on a certain topic. Alright. But you have references. Meaning that you have to either quote or summarise from other authors. Just to support your own idea. That's it. But, what we are doing, sorry to say this, it's more towards like a thesis, which I don't really think the students need because they are already taught in the kulliyahs, the format of a thesis. And since we... they come from different kulliyahs, they have different format. What are we supposed to be doing here, EAW, English for Academic Writing, we are supposed to be focusing on the language, not on the format.

(LEAW9, Lines 59 – 68)

LEAW14 and LEAW9, who also had four years of experience teaching EAW, also shared their struggles teaching the EAW course. LEAW14 revealed her concern of the course as she felt that she was teaching research methodology when teaching EAW. She commented, “And we ourselves are not aware of err research methodology.

Teaching this course sometimes makes you think that you are teaching research methodology”. LEAW9, also shared her dissatisfaction with EAW. She said, “But, what we are doing, sorry to say this, it's more towards like a thesis, which I don't really think the students need because they are already taught in the kulliyahs, the format of a thesis. And since we... they come from different kulliyahs, they have different format. What are we supposed to be doing here, EAW, English for Academic Writing, we are supposed to be focusing on the language, not on the format”. Here, power struggles can be inferred from her dissatisfaction of having to teach a course which she believed was not catering to her student needs.

11. With the subject. At first, I wasn't really that confident. It was like, a bit like shooting in the dark [giggled]. Because I didn't really know what to expect, what are the things that they are... you know, what the students expect me to do, what are the coverage, because I... to tell you the half-cut truth, I didn't really... like to see this [pointing at the course outline].

(LEAW8, Lines 24 – 27)

Finally, LEAW8, who only had three years of experience teaching the course, also expressed similar struggles. She summarised her experience in her comment, “It was like, a bit like shooting in the dark”, showing her frustration of not achieving something out of her teaching. Even though her teaching experience was the least compared to other lecturers, her similar opinions about EAW with the more experienced lecturers suggest that power struggles were a common issue affecting the lecturers regardless of levels of experience.

All in all, these lecturers shared similar comments about the course, that they had difficulties teaching it because of the focus on research rather than language. Their responses revealed dissatisfaction and problems, which imply power struggles, but no one indicated any signs of resistance as a response to their power struggles. Even though many of them related the difficulties at the beginning of teaching EAW, none of them indicated any actions which suggest questioning or negotiation with the party who imposed the changes – the top management. They continued teaching the course while

coping with the situation. Therefore, the underlying meaning that can be inferred from this is that the EAW lecturers had power struggles with the top management of the university, but no resistance was manifested.

4.8.1.2 Students' power struggles.

During the interview with the students, some of them gave some responses that indicated power struggles. They indicated this when they responded to questions about the EAW course. As is the case of the EAW lecturers, on the surface, some responses revealed the students' dissatisfaction and problems. These dissatisfaction and problems can imply underlying meanings indicating power struggles. The excerpts from the interviews below contain instances of the students' power struggles with their lecturers.

1. But when I'm in class, I don't really understand what the lecturer is giving me. I don't really understand what she's talking about. So I have... I'm doing it but I'm doing it by myself most of the time.

(SENG1, Lines 86 – 88)

2. But I don't know if this is a lecturer thing or not, but I wish I have more exercises to... because I have no experience at all before this to... in academic writing.

(SENG1, Lines 145 – 146)

3. ... in the earlier parts of the course, you know, in the semester, the first half of it. I don't understand anything about it. I don't understand what EAW was about. I don't know how to cite anything. But then, I have to study it for myself but, if I have more exercises in the beginning and getting more comfortable with the subject I think I could have done better, earlier on.

(SENG1, Lines 171 – 175)

The first three instances are from SENG1, a fourth year mechanical automotive engineering student whom I interviewed to investigate his academic writing needs.

However, as indicated above, there were three different times during the interview where he talked about how he struggled to cope with the EAW lesson. The first excerpt showed the first time that he was having a struggle, although at this point, it could be seen as a normal student problem. There was no mentioning of the lecturer's part in this situation. However, he did hesitantly mention at the end of this excerpt, "I'm doing it by myself most of the time" which may suggest absence of the lecturer's help in coping with his problem.

On the other hand, in the first line of the second excerpt, he said, "But I don't know if this is a lecturer thing or not, but I wish I have more exercises...". This can be interpreted as a suggestion that he wanted to say something about the lecturer. In the third excerpt, he shifted the focus back to himself as he said, "But then, I have to study it for myself..." which was a repetition of what he had said earlier on. This may suggest a restatement of dissatisfaction or frustration. In short, it could be assumed that the student was struggling not just to cope with his studies, but perhaps the struggle has something to do with the lecturer, and it might be indicating questioning the lecturer and the lecturer's pedagogic choices, something which he was not prepared to do in class. Similar to the EAW lecturers, SENG1 also faced a power struggle but did not reveal any resistance.

4. In my opinion, I don't think it helps me in my writing, in my English.

(SHS2, Line 103)

5. I think EAW is more on research... it is more on the methods, not on writing.

(SHS2, Line 110)

6. Mostly, EAW it didn't...it didn't teach me English. It didn't teach me how to write or how to what...it just teach me how to aaa...to...to do research...the...the step of doing research and, just teach me how to write the...the...the research, which is I already...(always do)...

(SHS2, Lines 137 – 139)

The fourth, fifth and sixth excerpts are taken from the interview with SHS2, a fourth year human sciences student, majoring in sociology and anthropology. There was also an indication of a power struggle when he tried to relate the course to his needs. However, in contrast to SENG1 who indicated his power struggle with his lecturer, SHS2 referred to his struggle with the EAW course. During the interview, he complained that the course did not teach him much. On the other hand, this can also imply his struggle with his lecturer, since it was the lecturer who taught the course. There were at least three times where he said something indicating his frustrations about the course. Firstly, in the fourth excerpt, he said, “In my opinion, I don’t think it (EAW) helps me in my writing, in my English”. Then, in the fifth one, he stated, “I think EAW is more on research... it is more on the methods, not on writing”. Lastly, in the sixth excerpt, he mentioned, “It didn’t teach me how to write or how to what...it just teach me how to aaa...to...to do research...which is I already...(always do)”. He consistently conveyed the same idea in his comments, and these three comments indicating his frustrations can be interpreted as his power struggle with the lecturer, as he believed the lecturer was not addressing his needs in the course. On the other hand, like SENG1, he did not raise the issue with his lecturer, indicating a power struggle without resistance.

7. Err... mainly the irrelevant part is the... how do I say this... it's like erm... like I said before, English... I mean EAW subject, they focus on more general things, not something that you have to study so deep about. And then... the one we are studying in our kulliyyah, we have to find... like we have to do very deep research on the science things. You know science things are not things that you can make up yourself. You have to like, study, you have to do experiments, things like that. So... did I answer your question [giggled]?

(SENG2, Lines 90 – 95)

8. Err... I think... I mean, the subject is good, the subject... it is good actually... and... but I think that's about it. I mean they have to offer the subject more to the first and second year students. Because they don't know anything about general studies. I didn't know anything about general articles... what... academic writing.

I did not know about these things when I was back in first and second year. But now that I reach final year, I've learnt about this since last semester, since last year. So, to me, honestly, it's quite a waste of time because we're like... learning the same thing, over and over again. So, if... the subject is good, the subject is very good, but you need to offer it more for first and second year students.

(SENG2, Lines 111 – 118)

SENG2 is a fourth year biotech engineering student. Similar to SHS2, she also shared her dissatisfaction with the EAW course. Although she did not explicitly refer to her lecturer, it can be implied that her power struggle involved the lecturer, the person who taught the course. She struggled in the course because she did not take any action to cope with her struggle, such as questioning or negotiating with the lecturer, when she felt that the course was not related to her as she said, “mainly the irrelevant part is the... how do I say this... it's like erm... like I said before, English.. I mean EAW subject, they focus on more general things, not something that you have to study so deep about... the one we are studying in our kulliyah, we have to find... like we have to do very deep research on the science things”. She indicated her struggle in her comment, “So, to me, honestly, it's quite a waste of time because we're like... learning the same thing, over and over again”.

9. I was... struggling with my research paper in EAW because the format is different. So I took the past report samples that my lecturer from EAW gave, and then I followed the techniques that the past seniors did. I followed exactly. I didn't copy any word. I do my own work but I followed the techniques, the structure. And then, when I submit it, he was like... he called me... didn't return my paper. He called me after the class, he said like, “It was too good. I didn't find any mistake. It is a miracle. It is PhD level”. So I was like, ok, is it a compliment or anything. I was thinking, why he looked mad. Suddenly he said I need to change my topic. Because he didn't believe I did that. And he wanted me to redo it. And he wanted me to downgrade the level. He said “Make it look more like a degree level”. So, first thing, I don't know how to do. So I need, I

need a good sample. So what I did, I took a sample from the course, and then I follow how they did. I don't know how to do it. But, I follow the structure. So, I was like, I don't know how to do, so I follow good example, and then I got problem from it. So, it's kind of annoying. Because he didn't really teach us how to do it. He teach but, I don't know. When I did, he said many things.

(SENG3, Lines 88 – 101).

10. As far as I'm concerned, he didn't teach us on how to summarise. He said we have to, like make it, you know, the short is better. But I didn't think he teach us how to do it. I think it's more to the technical aspect like, how to start the literature review, there's a key word, like you have to use that key word. He teaches the... like how to... the technical part I think.

(SENG3, Lines 110 – 113)

11. I have high expectation when I took English. Many of my friends told me that it's not related but I didn't think about that. I really want to take it because I really need help on my writing. So like, when I took it, my expectation, like, it was not fulfilled. I was disappointed.

(SENG3, 195 – 198)

The next three excerpts revealed another example where a power struggle was at play. This example can be regarded as a serious case of a power struggle for a student with her lecturer. SENG3, a final year engineering (electronic-computer and IT) student, revealed her struggle with the EAW course. She shared an incident where she was not given a chance by her lecturer to justify or defend her position. She revealed her opinion about the course and the incident in one lengthy statement, shown in the ninth excerpt. She began by saying, “I was... struggling with my research paper in EAW because the format is different”. Then, she continued by explaining the incident where she was scolded by her lecturer who suspected the originality of her work. She said the lecturer claimed that her paper was too good for her level and instructed her to redo it. Some of her lecturer's words are, “It was too good. I didn't find any mistake. It is a

miracle. It is PhD level”. She continued explaining about the incident, “...he (the lecturer) looked mad. Suddenly he said I need to change my topic. Because he didn’t believe I did that. And he wanted me to redo it. And he wanted me to downgrade the level”.

SENG3’s explanation about the incident indicated a serious power struggle. Moreover, she also complained about the lack of teaching by her lecturer, which indicated her further dissatisfaction with the course. There are two comments about her lecturer which show this: the first one is about her problem understanding the lecturer, “Because he didn’t really teach us how to do it. He teach but, I don’t know”; the second one is her claim that her lecturer did not teach summarising, “As far as I’m concerned, he didn’t teach us on how to summarise. He said we have to, like make it, you know, the short is better. But I didn’t think he teach us how to do it”. Finally, she revealed her disappointment with EAW for not fulfilling her expectations. She said, “So like, when I took it, my expectation, like, it was not fulfilled. I was disappointed”. Her dissatisfaction with the course suggested evidence of a power struggle. In particular, her incident with her lecturer was a direct instance of a power struggle. During the incident, the lecturer was not showing any signal that that he was willing to negotiate with her. At the same time, she did not question her lecturer to show her dissatisfaction. So, even though SENG3 was facing a power struggle in that particular situation, she did not create any resistance as a response to it.

12. Yes I am. Yes I'm happy. Ok maybe there's one suggestion is, I feel like we have free time, a lot of free time in the course. There is room to put some more, ok. But maybe we are so pressured, so this course is easy. Ok I'm gonna find real example since no one's gonna hear this. So sometimes, we just come to class and she will just check the draft and that's it. Then we have to leave. And yea... so there is time which means you can add something else. Since the whole course is about writing a research paper, so it seems that we have more than enough time to write.

(SENG4, Lines 136 – 142)

Finally, SENG4, a fourth year chemical biotechnology engineering student, also shared his comment about his lecturer, whom he described as good but needed to optimise the class hours more. Even though he was pleased with the course, he commented about his lecturer, “Ok I'm gonna find real example since no one's gonna hear this. So sometimes, we just come to class and she will just check the draft and that's it. Then we have to leave”. This comment indicating his dissatisfaction about the lecturer also implies a power struggle. However, similar to SENG3, he did not do anything that indicated resistance.

To conclude, it can be seen from the findings that all engineering students who took the EAW course described power struggles with the EAW lecturers, compared to only one human sciences student. One engineering student (SENG3) had a direct experience of a power struggle with her lecturer, compared to others whose power struggles can only be inferred from their dissatisfaction and problems with the course. Nonetheless, none of them responded to the struggles with resistance – an important element in the concept of power relations by Foucault. They did not reveal any evidence of questioning or negotiation with the lecturers over their dissatisfaction or problems, which gives the impression that they have not played their role as active participants, but rather as compliant subjects (Benesch, 1999). According to Benesch, rights analysis sees EAP students as active rather than compliant participants. She states,

Rights are not a set of pre-existing demands but a conceptual framework for questions about authority and control, such as: what are students permitted to do in a particular setting? How do they respond to rules and regulations? How are decisions about control and resistance made? Rights analysis does not assume that students are entitled to certain rights or that they should engage in particular types of activities but that the possibility for engagement exists. (p. 315)

In the context of the situations discussed above, it can be said that the students were deprived of their ‘rights’ to know what to do or how to respond in the particular setting. On the other hand, the lecturer’s roles in the situations can also be related to “being too identified with traditional academic culture” (Benesch, 1999, p.322), where the textbook-driven lecture course is the common approach in teaching and learning.

4.8.2 Theme 2: Power relationships.

The second theme emerging from the rights analysis is ‘power relationships’. This theme is different from the first theme which focuses on the EAW lecturers’ and students’ struggles. ‘Power relationships’ is about how power is exercised among the stakeholders in the institutional hierarchy. In the context of this study, the findings indicating power relationships can be used to pose questions addressing the power exercised between the stakeholders of an academic writing course in IIUM.

The following subthemes are created to discuss power relationships. Some parts in the interview excerpts which are considered important are underlined for ease of reference.

4.8.2.1 Power relationships: the management.

In Foucault’s theory of power, instead of identifying the heads and administrators in an organisation, studying power should involve questioning how and why decisions are made. Thus, these findings revealed how decisions were made in the context of academic writing in IIUM. This theme emerged after the responses from a former EAP/EAW course coordinator revealed how power was exercised by the university top management. Below are the excerpts of the interview between the interviewer (I) and the former EAP/EAW course coordinator (LEAW6):

1. LEAW6: Err like I said, there was, err the needs analysis was done almost whenever we change, all right? But needs analyses were done, results, I don’t know where [laughed].

I: So, was there really... what we call that, err... the results wasn’t really... were not really... (analysed)?

LEAW6: (There were not disclosed). No, it was analysed, it was analysed. But it was not disclosed.

I: Disclosed? Okay.

LEAW6: It was not disclosed. It was just between the top management. And then, whenever we had academic review, it was just mentioned - okay, based on the needs analysis... they just summarised it. And that’s it.

(LEAW6, Lines 79 – 103)

2. LEAW6: Ah... they did, like I said, okay, they had... this is under... they went... every time when there's changes they go through senate, all right. And then the... the feedback would come from the deans. So, by the time they said that the deans also like the idea of research, because they are all going for research, right, with the research university status and all that, and then erm... some feedback came around, all right, but, there was a lot of feedback coming from AIKOL, Law kulliyyah, erm because they wanted, they... they noticed that their students' English, because AIKOL demands a high level of English, so erm... they noticed that their level, the students' level of English has deteriorated from, between year one to year four. So, erm they wanted to see if EAW, there was a request once, requested that perhaps EAW would erm... move towards more into language rather than research, erm... but all the other, if I'm not mistaken, the other deans as well as our dean at that time, erm said that we wanted to, they wanted to stick to this, so erm then they suggested if we had, we could have another course between pre-sessional and LE4000.

(LEAW6, Lines 265 – 277)

LEAW6, a former EAP/EAW course coordinator, was one of the pioneers in the early EAP courses in CELPAD, and had been coordinating and teaching the courses until the inception of EAW. She had taught for more than 15 years at the language centre. During the interview, she was asked about the needs analysis for the EAP/EAW course. She indicated her awareness of it, but revealed that the findings never reached her or the language centre. During the interview, she said, "...the needs analysis was done almost whenever we change, all right? But needs analysis were done, results, I don't know where [laughed]". Regarding the findings, she added that, "It was not disclosed. It was just between the top management. And then, whenever we had academic review, it was just mentioned - okay, based on the needs analysis... they just summarised it. And that's it". These comments indicated that the top management, comprising the people at the highest level of the university hierarchy, exercised its

power in its relationships with the language centre, in the way that dominant members in the society have over subordinate members, which contradicts how Foucault sees power as coexisting with resistance. In this case, the language centre, instead of exercising resistance by questioning about the needs analysis and engaging in the mechanism of powers, became objects of its control by submitting to the power imposed by the top management, which was presented as non-negotiable.

When she was asked about how decisions pertaining to the EAP or EAW courses were made, LEAW6 explained that the decisions were made at the university's top management level, the senate. She said "...every time when there's changes they go through senate, all right. And then the... the feedback would come from the deans". She also explained about the decision for the EAW course to use research as a tool in teaching academic writing, "... the deans also like the idea of research, because they are all going for research, right, with the research university status and all that". The decision was made by considering the opinions of the members in the management instead of basing it on the findings from needs analysis. In addition, even though there was a request from the law faculty for EAW to focus more on language rather than research, it was not accepted because all other deans preferred the focus on research in the EAW course. On the other hand, they suggested another course to cater to this need. This also implies how power was exercised among the members in the top management. The management members had their own perceived needs and negotiated these needs to reach a decision.

In conclusion, power relationships in the management can be described as how the people in the top management exercised their power to decide on behalf of the members of the lower level in the hierarchy. Power and resistance, although coexisting, were not indicated in the relationships between the levels. There was no indication of the language centre's involvement in decision making, at least with regard to needs analysis. On the other hand, the relationships among the members of the management showed evidence of negotiation, which can be related to the aspect of resistance to power.

4.8.2.2 *Power relationships: the language centre and the faculties.*

According to Benesch (2001a), to talk of ‘rights’ is to regard academic life as “contested, with various players exercising power for different ends” (p. 62). Interviews with the former and current EAP/EAW coordinators and faculty lecturers revealed the power relationships between the people at the language centre and the faculty. This is reflected in the following interview excerpts:

1. I: Okay. Was there any help by any kulliyah in terms of maybe, you know, erm... providing us with some specific information, or maybe even erm... sending people or personnel to... to discuss with us, and to help us in terms of, you know, in terms of the... the... the design... in terms of designing of the course maybe. Anything, any help or no, or any assistance...

LEAW6: Unfortunately, no... No, they have not. For EAW they would prefer that we do it.

(LEAW6, Lines 278 – 282)

2. I: Hmm...mmm...okay. Do you agree with having one and the same EAW course for all kulliyahs?

LEAW1: I think it is easier to manage, yes, definitely.

I: Okay. Erm any other reasons why you think so?

LEAW1: Err... well, to get everyone, to have the same understanding, be on the same page basically. Let say the kulliyahs need more erm specific or err slightly fine-tuned version of the EAW then they would come, they should come out with it, I mean on their own. But as a basic level, I think that everyone should do EAW of the same format, and if they need to move into something more detailed, then respective kulliyahs should handle that instead.

(LEAW1, Lines 54 – 62)

The first two excerpts are from the interviews with the former and current EAP/EAW coordinators. Their opinions represented the administrative level at the language centre. During the interview with the former EAP/EAW coordinator, LEAW6,

she was asked whether there was any assistance from the faculties with regard to the EAP/EAW course design. Her reply, “Unfortunately, no”, although brief, can be interpreted as an indication of power exercised between the faculties and the language centre. The word ‘unfortunately’ sends a negative signal of the relationship with the faculties. Her following comment, “No, they have not. For EAW they would prefer that we do it” indicates that she just accepted the decision by the faculties without any questions. Additionally, while the faculties might not have realised their potential roles to assist the EAW course, there was no initiative taken by the language centre to approach the faculties for that reason.

The second excerpt is from the interview with LEAW1, the current EAW course coordinator. Her comments can be related to LEAW6’s. LEAW1 did not see the need to involve the faculties in the EAW course. Her comments, “Let say the kulliyahs need more erm specific or err slightly fine-tuned version of the EAW then they would come, they should come out with it, I mean on their own”, and “... if they need to move into something more detailed, then respective kulliyahs should handle that instead”, indicate a subtle exercise of power in the relationships between the language centre and the faculties; there is a sense of authority in her statement that shows she is not going to negotiate about this. She commented that the faculties should do it on their own if they wanted to have a course that suited them.

3. I: So what is the technique that you are using?

LENG3: Erm..we usually...in this kulliyah we usually use APA or IEEE.

I: Okay.

LENG3: But then, when I look at their report, erm..I am not familiar with all the styles, it’s just that, it’s different. And sometimes, some of the lecturers said "Oh, this is wrong!"

(LENG3, Lines 179 – 183)

4. LENG3: But, I am not sure whether it’s...it’s their mistake or what they have learned, because they said that what they have learned, they put all the names of the writer for in-text citation. They say, what they learn, if it’s not more than

three, then you can put everybody.

I: Everybody there..ah..ha..

LENG3: So...but I didn't go and find what kind of...

I: But that is quite common, you mean more than (one student does that)?

LENG3: (Yea more than one...more than one student) and when I ask "Where did you learn this?" They said "in English class". So I was quite surprised actually [laugh].

(LENG3, Lines 191-198)

The two excerpts above are from the interview with a faculty lecturer. The excerpts reveal the faculty lecturer's response to the interviewer's question on the technical aspects of academic writing at her faculty. LENG3, a biotechnology engineering lecturer, was referring to an occasion where she discovered that her students were not using appropriate referencing techniques. She said she was surprised when the students told her that they learned these referencing techniques in their English class (EAW class). This does not indicate much about how power relations are displayed, but it can be inferred that the reaction of surprise (with laughter) suggests that she considered herself in the right and was an authority on referencing in a way the EAW lecturers were not. This is first reflected when she said, "But then, when I look at their report, erm..I am not familiar with all the styles, it's just that, it's different. And sometimes, some of the lecturers said 'Oh, this is wrong!'" Then, she continued her comment with, "when I ask 'Where did you learn this?' They said 'in English class'. So I was quite surprised actually [laugh]".

5. LENG2: I think we can erm..ask...ask the student on what are the related...errr...I mean short research that they have to do (in Engineering) so that they are exposed and they have..they can, they can immediately relate with their background and culture in the...in the kulliyyah.

I: (Emm..hmm) Okay

LENG2: Yea. I think erm..for example, let say they are...instead of giving them to do survey because somehow they will not use it later on, so give something that they are going to be using it later on in...especially in FYP.

(LENG2, Lines 190 – 196)

The last excerpt is from the interview with LENG2, a mechatronics engineering lecturer. On the surface, her suggestion on what the language centre could do to cater to her student needs can be regarded as ordinary. Part of her suggestion is, "... instead of giving them to do survey because somehow they will not use it later on, so give something that they are going to be using it later on in...especially in FYP (Final Year Project)". Nevertheless, it can be inferred from her suggestion that despite her awareness of the impracticality of the research (survey) taught in EAW, she had not taken the initiative to approach the language centre on this matter. This may be related to the notion of power relationships between the faculty and the language centre. The faculty lecturer may have realised that the language centre was the party providing a service for the faculty, thus placing them as lower-status members of the academic hierarchy (Benesch, 2001a). The fact that she had not approached the centre was perhaps due to her impression that it was the obligation of the language centre to make the move.

4.9 Conclusion to Research Question 3

The third research question is: '3. How do the EAW lecturers', the faculty lecturers', and students' perceptions of EAW indicate power relations?'. It was discovered that power relations from the perceptions of the stakeholders in the study can be discussed in two main themes: power struggles and power relationships.

First, power struggles can be interpreted from the stakeholders' dissatisfaction and problems with the EAW course (power struggles), and their responses to their struggles (resistance). This theme is further divided into two subthemes, which focus on the EAW lecturers' power struggles with the management, and the students' power struggles with the EAW lecturers. The EAW lecturers' power struggles are related to their dissatisfaction and problems teaching EAW due to the focus on research rather

than language. Nonetheless, no resistance was indicated. On the other hand, there are two types of evidence of the students' power struggles. One student experienced a power struggle directly with her lecturer, while other students' power struggles can only be inferred from their dissatisfaction and problems with the course. Nevertheless, similar to the EAW lecturers, none of them responded to the struggles with resistance.

The second theme is power relationships. This theme is related to the exercise of power among the stakeholders in the institutional hierarchy. The theme is also divided into two subthemes. The first subtheme reveals how power was exercised by the university top management. Power relationships in the management were evident in the way the top management exercised its power to decide for those at the lower level in the hierarchy. However, although power and resistance coexist, they were not indicated in the relationships between the members of the same level in the hierarchy. The second subtheme is about the power relationships between the lecturers at the language centre and the faculty. Neither the language centre nor the faculties had taken any initiative to collaborate, suggesting power being exercised by players in academic life. Another inference that can be made is that the faculty lecturers viewed the language centre as a lower-status member of the academic hierarchy.

All in all, it can be concluded that the EAW lecturers', the faculty lecturers', and students' power relations are in the forms of power struggles and power relationships.

4.10 Discussion

This study investigates academic writing in the context of student academic writing needs in the EAW course in IIUM. The discussion of the findings will be done by situating the main findings into the main frame of academic writing at the university. In the case study, the five subunits of analysis, or the stakeholders, are: (1) EAW lecturers; (2) EAW/ENGIN students; (3) EAW/HS students; (4) ENGIN lecturers; and (5) HS lecturers. The themes will serve as the platforms for the discussion to relate the findings to the literature in this thesis. A summary of the findings will be presented first.

Table 33. *Summary of Findings*

RESEARCH QUESTIONS (RQ)		FINDINGS/THEMES		SOURCES
1. What are the EAW lecturers', the faculty lecturers', and students' perceptions of academic writing needs ? *Findings from questionnaires: The majority of the stakeholders viewed academic writing as the most important language skill for students. The majority also agreed that academic writing and research writing were very important in the faculties.		<i>Student needs for research writing skills.</i>	PSA	EAW lect, ENGIN lect, EAW/ENGIN std, EAW/HS std
		<i>Student needs for basic language skills.</i>		ENGIN lect, HS lect , EAW/ENGIN std, EAW/HS std
		<i>Students have needs which were unmet by EAW.</i>		EAW/HS std, EAW/ENGIN std
		<i>Applying research writing skills upon graduation.</i>	TSA	EAW lect
		<i>Writing good research reports.</i>		ENGIN lect, HS lect, EAW/ENGIN std, EAW/HS std
		<i>Having higher level of proficiency in language.</i>		HS lect
2. What are the EAW lecturers', the EAW/ENGIN students' and the EAW/HS students' perceptions of the EAW course ? 2.1. What are the EAW lecturers' perceptions of the EAW course in the context of EGAP and ESAP ? 2.2. What are the EAW lecturers, the EAW/ENG students and the EAW/HS students' perceptions of the EAW course and student needs ? * Findings from questionnaires: The majority had a positive view towards EAW.		<i>EAW is an EGAP course and should be changed to focus on ESAP.</i>		
		<i>EAW is an EGAP course and should remain as it is.</i>		
		<i>The student need for EAW is due to the need to do research.</i>	TSA	EAW lect, EAW/ENGIN std, EAW/HS std
		<i>EAW could meet student needs but only in some ways.</i>		EAW lect and EAW/ENGIN std
		<i>EAW caters to student needs only for some faculties.</i>		EAW lect
		<i>Students need an EAW course that focuses more on language.</i>		EAW lect

3. How do the EAW lecturers', the faculty lecturers', and students' perceptions of EAW indicate power relations?	<i>EAW lecturers' power struggles.</i>	EAW lect
	<i>Students' power struggles.</i>	EAW/ENGIN std, EAW/HS std
	<i>Power relationships: the management.</i>	EAW lect
	<i>Power relationships: the language centre and the faculties</i>	EAW lect, ENGIN lect,

Note: lect = lecturers; std = students;

It can be seen from Table 33 that each research question has generated more than one theme. The column 'SOURCES' shows the participants who were associated with the themes. The participants highlighted in bold were the main sources of the themes since the majority in their group gave similar responses from where the themes emerged. For ease of discussion, the main ideas in each research question are extracted and presented in separate diagrams. However, whenever necessary references will be made to Table 33 during the discussion.

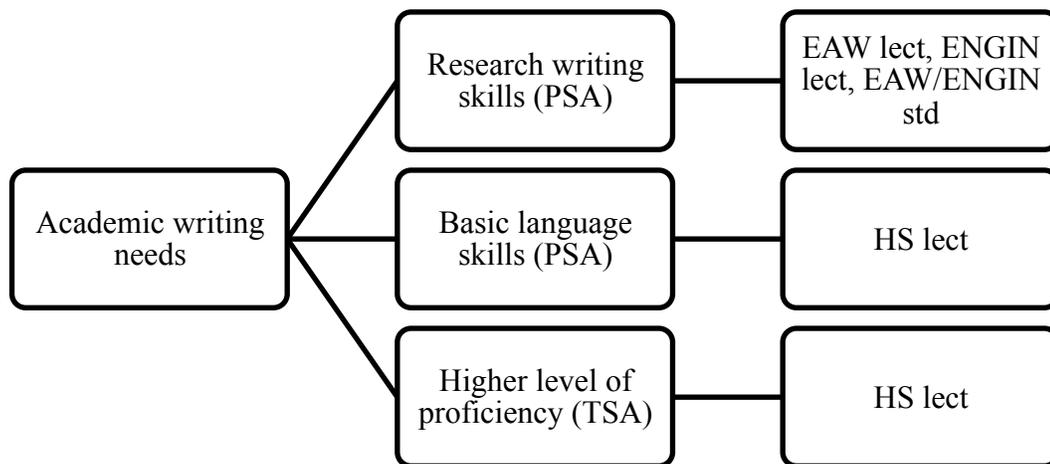


Figure 14. Student academic writing needs

Figure 14 shows the main findings of RQ 1. In terms of the student present needs (PSA), EAW and ENGIN lecturers, as well as EAW/ENGIN students perceived

‘research writing skills’ as the skills that the students were mostly lacking. On the other hand, the majority of the HS lecturers perceived basic language skills as the most important skills that their students needed while they were studying. They were also the only group (see Table 33) that had a shared perception that students needed to achieve a higher level of proficiency in academic writing (TSA). Additionally, with regard to the student TSA, one of the identified target needs in Table 33, ‘Applying research writing skills upon graduation’, only emerged in the theme from EAW lecturers’ responses. Next, the main findings of RQ 2 are presented in Figure 15.

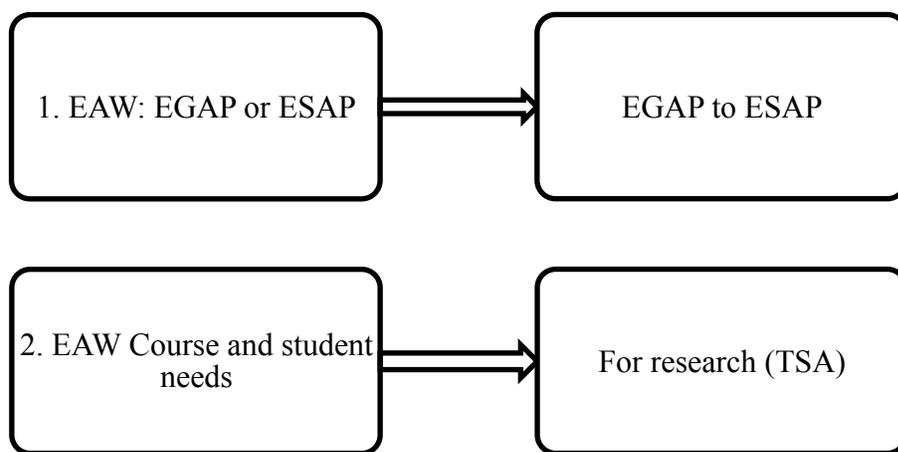


Figure 15. Perceptions of the EAW course and student needs

Figure 15 shows the main findings of RQ 2. The first refers to the EAW lecturers’ understanding of the two approaches in EAP: EGAP and ESAP. This question was only addressed to the EAW lecturers as they were the only group that taught the EAW course. It appears that even though none of the EAW lecturers were aware of the two terms, most of them were familiar with the concepts after the explanation had been given. The majority of the EAW lecturers perceived the EAW course as an EGAP course. This perception was congruent with the EAW course which focuses on research writing skills, a feature of an EGAP course where a set of common language skills can be transferred across contexts (Hyland, 2006). Ten out of 15 lecturers shared this

perception, and out of this number, half of them believed that EAW should be changed to focus on ESAP.

The second finding, which was the answer to the second subquestion of RQ 2, was rather anticipated as EAW was a research-based course. The majority of the participants consisting of the EAW lecturers, the EAW/ENGIN and the EAW/HS students mentioned doing research as the main reason for taking the course. The next main idea is presented in Figure 16.

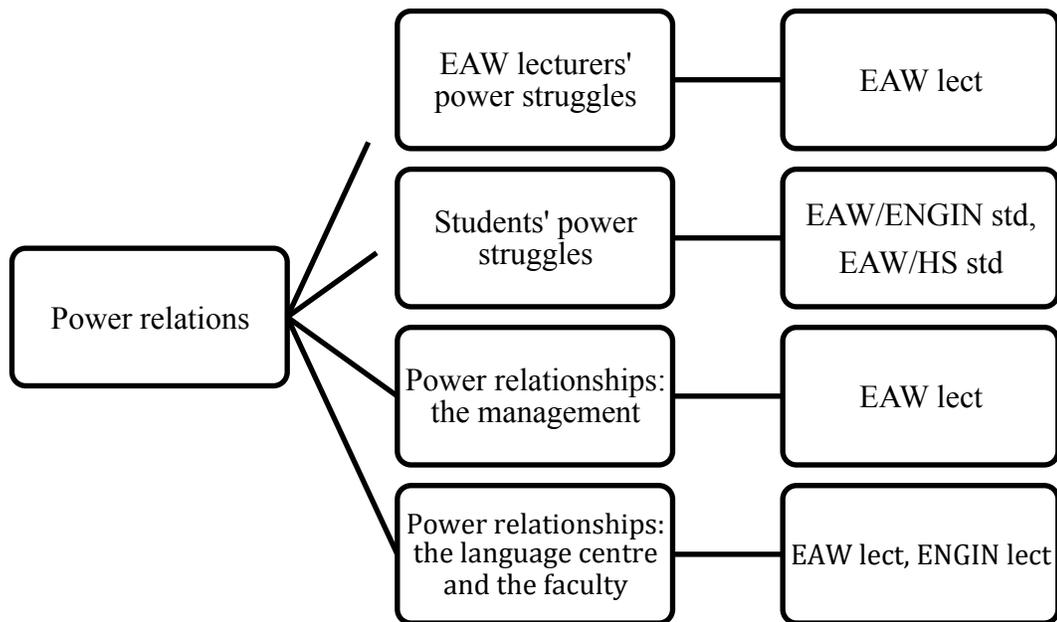


Figure 16. Power relations among stakeholders

It can be seen from Figure 16 that all of the groups, except the HS lecturers, spoke of power relations in terms of power struggles and power relationships. Power struggles were revealed by nine EAW lecturers, all four EAW/ENGIN students as well as one EAW/HS student. The themes were generated by inferring from the lecturers' and students' dissatisfaction with the EAW course. Power relationships were uncovered from two EAW lecturers' and two ENGIN lecturers' responses. They referred to the exercise of power between the EAW lecturers and the university management, and between the EAW lecturers and the faculty lecturers.

In summary, the findings have revealed the answers to the research questions in the forms of themes. However, the themes, as they stand, are rather detached from serving as the answers to the general aim of this research, that is to understand academic writing in IIUM. Therefore, the themes on the student needs and the EAW course, and the elements of power relations among the stakeholders will be discussed before they are situated back in the context of academic writing in IIUM.

At the beginning of this thesis, academic writing was discussed in terms of its importance in higher learning institutions. With the aim to understand academic writing as a phenomenon at the university, relevant issues have been discussed in the context of the EAW course and student needs. Further discussions in Chapter Two have given some background of the developments of academic writing. Discussions also covered the controversial subjects in EAP (EGAP and ESAP; the study skills, academic socialisation and academic literacies; pragmatic and critical EAP).

4.10.1 Student academic writing needs at the university.

The findings in this study have been reported in terms of the student needs as target needs (also Target Situation Analysis – TSA), or present needs (also Present Situation Analysis – PSA). According to Robinson (1991), TSA is to elicit information regarding the students' English language requirements during their studies (e.g., what is required to achieve learning objectives), or the stage where the students start working (e.g., what skills the students need to have to do well in work). PSA, on the other hand, is to assess the students' strengths and weaknesses at the start of their language course.

The findings from the needs analysis on academic writing in EAW (RQ 2.2) have revealed that generally, the majority of the EAW lecturers and students had a positive view towards the course. With regard to the importance of academic writing and research writing (RQ 1), the EAW lecturers, faculty lecturers as well as the students felt that they were important skills in the faculties (TSA). This can be compared to the studies by Casanave and Hubbard (1992), Dehnad et al. (2010), Jenkins et al. (1993) and Zhu (2004) that found that academic writing was important for the students.

Most of the EAW lecturers, ENGIN lecturers, EAW/ENGIN and EAW/HS students perceived research writing skills as their present situation needs (PSA), with

specific needs for the skills to write the literature review, paraphrase, summarise and write citations. In addition, there was a consistency between their present needs and their target needs (TSA), which are writing good research reports (ENGIN lecturers, EAW/ENGIN and EAW/HS students) and applying research writing skills upon graduation (EAW lecturers).

However, the findings from the interviews revealed that, unlike other stakeholders, HS lecturers did not perceive research writing skills as the most important skills. On the other hand, they believed that students needed more improvement in their basic language skills due to their current writing problems (PSA) to achieve a higher level of language proficiency (TSA). This finding is interesting because the questionnaire findings indicated that HS lecturers were among the majority of the respondents who strongly agreed with the importance of research writing in the faculties. With regard to student present needs, HS lecturers felt that the main problems among the students were grammar, tenses and subject-verb agreement. In comparison, grammar was also perceived as an important need in the studies by Sarudin et al. (2009), Mehrdad (2012), Abiri (2013), Casanave and Hubbard (1992) and Huang (2010).

The discrepancies between the stakeholders' perceptions can be compared with several studies. It was evident in the studies by Yildirim and Ilin (2009) and Huang (2010) that writing instructors and students had similar and different views about student writing needs. Moreover, the faculties in the studies by Casanave and Hubbard (1992), Jenkins et al. (1993) and Zhu (2004), albeit acknowledging the importance of writing, differed in their emphasis on writing. Furthermore, Dehnad et al. (2010) also found that the stakeholders in their study had similarities and differences in their perceptions of student needs.

Needs analyses in other contexts with a non-writing focus also revealed different perceptions among their subjects. Eslami (2010) found that humanities and engineering students' perceptions of language proficiency problems differed from medical students' perceptions, whereas Akyel and Ozek's (2010) study indicated a discrepancy between instructors' and students' perceptions of student needs. Liu et al. (2011) also discovered that listening, speaking, reading and writing needs on an ESP/EAP course were not

equally perceived by the students. On the other hand, there were stakeholders in some studies who shared the same perceptions regarding student needs, such as the ones by Mehrdad (2012), Abiri (2013) and Sarudin et al. (2009).

The main findings at this point have provided evidence from the stakeholders' perspectives indicating that academic writing is the most important skill in the engineering and human sciences faculties in IIUM. The EAW course, which focused on research writing, has also been acknowledged as fulfilling its objectives. All of the stakeholders agreed with the importance of research writing for students, except for some lecturers from the human sciences faculty who perceived basic language skills as more important. However, on a different note, I agree with Benesch's (2001a) criticism that Robinson's (1991) needs analysis does not address the political and subjective nature of needs analysis, and it provides results that are descriptive in nature. The outcome of needs analysis is limited to identifying and fulfilling target expectations, when in reality learners' needs are also impacted by the political nature of education, as education is political and never neutral (Benesch, 2001b; Pennycook, 1989; Shor, 1992).

Additionally, relying only on needs analysis might not elicit the students' actual needs as the sources might not be the most reliable (Basturkmen, 2006). Benesch (1996, 1999, 2001a) has been critical of traditional needs analysis in ESP which she describes as purportedly neutral, although in reality it cannot be neutral. Despite the claim that needs analysis is neutral, it can be used by the institutions to get others to conform to its communicative practices (Basturkmen, 2006). Therefore, the use of rights analysis was deemed necessary to address this gap. This is related to the issues of power relations in the institutional hierarchy, which needs analysis should take into account. Placing all the stakeholders in the same dimension in needs analysis has neglected power – an instrumental element which may play a significant part in the stakeholders' evaluations of needs. The next section will discuss the power relations at the university where the study took place.

4.10.2 Power relations at the university.

The third research question (RQ 3) has placed academic writing in the context of power. Foucault (1980) sees power as “always already there” (p. 141, as cited in Benesch, 1999, p. 315). In addition, Benesch (1993, 2001b), Pennycook (1989) and Shor (1992) assert that ESL instruction and EAP are ideological, as education is political and never neutral. In the context of the EAW course, the university senate is the highest authority that makes the main decisions on matters pertaining to curriculum and pedagogy. This can be related to the notion that education is political, since decisions about what is taught, and to whom, how, when, and where the teaching takes place are made at high levels of the political hierarchy (Pennycook, 1989; Shor, 1992). In other words, the decision-making process in the senate meeting is where power exists.

The first evidence of power relations revealed that power struggles were indicated between the stakeholders from different levels of the hierarchy, but the resistance was not translated into action. Power struggles were consistently evident among most EAW lecturers, who indirectly indicated their struggles through their dissatisfaction with the university management that imposed the changes on the EAW course. Students, especially from the engineering faculty, also expressed their dissatisfaction with the course and also the lecturers, thus revealing their forms of power struggles.

These findings can be compared with the findings by Noori and Mazdayasna (2015) who conducted their rights analysis in the Iranian context. In particular, they found that most students who were not satisfied with their pre-academic EFL instruction were reluctant to challenge their lecturers and did not question them, similar to the present study. These matching findings indicate the existence of power struggles in an EFL or EAP classroom, and the absence of resistance by the students. Nevertheless, Noori and Mazdayasna did find some students who expressed their dissatisfaction to their lecturers, which shows signs of resistance as a response to power. In contrast, despite the power struggles, the present study did not identify any resistance from the stakeholders. This perhaps can be related to Benesch’s (2001a) statement, that resistance does not eliminate one’s susceptibility to regulation. Nonetheless, these

findings revealed the traditional assumption that is still taking place in higher learning institutions, the assumption that positions certain stakeholders as powerless and passive recipients who have to accommodate themselves to the institutional demands (Benesch, 2001a; Hyland, 2006).

The second evidence of power relations is the exercise of power between the stakeholders in the institutional hierarchy, referred to as power relationships in this study. This was manifested by one EAW lecturer (former course coordinator) who revealed the imposition of power from the university management in the decision-making process regarding the course. In addition, EAW lecturers and ENGIN lecturers have also revealed how power was exercised between the two parties.

These findings can be compared with a few studies from the literature. First, Helmer (2013) found that the students in her study, who were mostly immigrants in a college in the US, faced learning 'gaps' which was caused by a lack of programme cohesion, consistency and oversight. Calling it programme neglect, she pointed out that the same-level courses at the college had prepared the same-level students unequally, which suggests power relations. In terms of teaching practice, there was a lack of cohesion between EAP professors and writing tutors.

Similarly, Noori and Mazdayasna (2015) also discovered power relations in their study. In particular, they discovered unequal relations in the EAP programmes in Iran. They found that the exercise of power and control had been a long-standing practice in the institution, and had not just affected students, but lecturers as well. Noori and Mazdayasna stated that the content specialists had instilled "a sense of professional authority and hierarchical status in the students, making them accept that the instructor is the best source of knowledge from whom they can learn best" (p. 51). This particular evidence of power relations can be related to one example in the present study, where a student (SENG3) had to accept her lot when her EAW lecturer indirectly doubted the authenticity of her assignment and asked her to redo it.

Finally, Khany and Tarlani-Aliabadi (2016) found an imbalanced relationships between students, teachers and curriculum developers in their study in the Iranian higher education system, as there was hardly any communication among the students, teachers and department officials in curriculum development and classroom practices.

Students had a passive and powerless role in the decision-making process regarding curriculum and pedagogy. In comparison to the findings of this study, the course coordinators and the EAW lecturers were also not involved in the decision-making process of the significant changes that the EAW course underwent. As such, it can be said that in the institutional hierarchy, students and teachers are bound to be implicitly perceived as powerless. These findings reflect what Benesch (1996, 2001a) explains about the hierarchical concept in EAP. She states that, instead of looking at how people at the bottom level can have greater power, the concept of hierarchy in EAP designates teachers as lower-status members, and students as novices who have to surrender to the demands of the target community.

On a different note, I view the existence of power relations especially between the language lecturers and faculty lecturers as related to the status of the language lecturers in my institution. According to Shor (1992), certain departments like arts can be overshadowed by other departments like technical departments, which he refers to as 'institutional clout'. This means that, certain departments or groups in an institution may possibly have dominance over others. Language lecturers as myself usually regard faculty lecturers as superior, and this leads us to perceive social inequalities between us and the faculty lecturers. Hence, although social inequalities are usually related to the phenomenon among students in schools (Cherryholmes, 1988), I see them as a phenomenon among the language and faculty lecturers in my institution.

To begin with, drawing on my personal experiences, being a language lecturer sometimes exposed me to politicising experiences (Crookes, 2013). In the context of my institution, the politicising experience is not just about getting frustrated over not getting promoted after advancing our professional qualifications with higher academic degrees, as exemplified by Crookes (2013). The language lecturers at my institution are generally placed on a lower status position among the academics by our lower salary scheme. This is due to the fact that the university adopts the Malaysian Remuneration System (The International Islamic University Malaysia, 2017), where language lecturers who begin working with a first degree qualification are put under a salary scheme which is different from faculty lecturers who can only start working with a master's degree. The faculty lecturers' salary scheme (DS scheme) is generally higher than the language

lecturers' salary scheme (DG scheme), if compared in terms of the starting salary and the last salary (Malaysian Public Service Department, 2013).

Since a higher salary generally indicates a higher status position, the difference in status may indirectly cause the language lecturers to feel unequal or even inferior to the faculty lecturers. I have an experience of being patronised by an academic who was a university administrator during a meeting to discuss the need for the English language course to be prioritised in the faculties. He made a remark that English language programmes should not be considered a priority since English language is a 'byproduct', suggesting that students can acquire it indirectly as they learn the subjects in their disciplines. Although status was not directly referred to in this particular event, being a language lecturer made me feel affected by such a remark, which I could not help but associate it with my status. This kind of 'treatment' indicating power relations is not new as other language lecturers whom I knew also had their share of similar experiences. Unfortunately, it is a sad reality that the exercise of power still exists as reflected in the findings of this study, and no resistance has taken place, at least as indicated by the absence of dialogue between the stakeholders. Thus, even though Freire (2003) discusses dialogue as the essence of true education in a teacher-student context, I believe all stakeholders need to have dialogue to avoid from being in the 'oppressor-oppressed' relationship as theorised by Freire. Social differences can be reduced with dialogue before existing practices become standard and 'dehumanise' us by making us to adapt to social oppression in the institutional structures "while remaining silent about the exercise of power within those structures" (Cherryholmes, 1988, p. 186).

To conclude, the findings from the rights analysis in this study have given a different value to the findings from the needs analysis. The underlying data that emerged from the interviews have revealed 'a different side of the story', proving that "there are no positions of absolute neutrality available for anyone on any issue" (Canagarajah, 2002, p. 18). In contrast to the findings from needs analysis which provided information on academic writing needs and the EAW course, these findings uncovered controversial realities from the stakeholders who have otherwise been regarded as content with their life at the university. It cannot be denied, however, that

the findings from the needs analysis are useful in many ways. Nonetheless, the contradictory meanings to the findings that each of them revealed have highlighted the benefits of juxtaposing needs analysis and rights analysis to allow for a two-way strategy – fulfilling target goals and searching for alternatives (Benesch, 2001a). In other words, needs analysis enables the institutions to identify and focus on meeting student target needs, whereas rights analysis opens up opportunities for institutional change.

The discussion in the next subsection will relate the findings to the concepts and approaches associated with EAP described earlier to situate academic writing in IIUM.

4.10.3 Situating academic writing.

In my effort to understand academic writing in IIUM, I situate academic writing in the context of the EAW course and student needs. I first will begin by trying to relate the EAW lecturers' perceptions of the course and student needs to the concepts and approaches in EAP reviewed and discussed previously. The results of the needs analysis can be said to place academic writing as a central focus of EAP. First, most EAW lecturers viewed the EAW course as an EGAP course. This is not surprising as the nature of the course fulfills the criteria of an EGAP model (see section 2.4). In fact, the course outline itself specifically refers to the transferable skills in the EAW course as part of its content (see Table 34) – reflecting the characteristics of an EGAP model which most EAP courses are based on (Hyland, 2002, 2006). Table 34 shows an excerpt of the course outline which states the inclusion of specific transferable skills in the EAW course: practical skills and critical thinking skills.

Table 34. *Transferable Skills in the EAW Course Outline*

19	Transferable Skills: <i>Skills and how they are developed and assessed. Project and practical experience and internship</i>	Skills (corresponding to LOs)	Skill development techniques	Assessment method
		Practical skills	Presentations, library skill, writing skills	Formative and summative
		Critical thinking skills	Critical reading skills	Formative and summative

Note: From The International Islamic University Malaysia (2011)

It is important to note that during the interviews, none of the EAW lecturers were aware of the term EGAP, although EGAP has become a popular approach in EAP (Basturkmen, 2006). However, they were able to relate to its meaning once the explanation was given. Despite not knowing the term, the lecturers were used to the idea of transferable skills as stated in the course outline. This suggests that the lecturers' perceptions of what a language course entails have been shaped by the concept of EGAP, at least subconsciously. Relating this to my own experience teaching academic writing at the language centre, I was mainly exposed to the pedagogy which reflected an EGAP approach: teaching language skills common to all disciplines; showing the relationships between the skills; and transferring the general skills across contexts and purposes (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Jordan, 1997; Hyland, 2002), even though the concepts were not introduced to me as EGAP. The EAW course sits well with every feature of wide-angle EGAP. The use of one set of general skills, such as research writing skills in EAW, is a trait of 'wide-angle courses', EAP courses with a concept similar to English for general purposes courses (Basturkmen, 2006; Widdowson, 1983).

On a different note, the EGAP approach can be associated with the study skills model of student writing, which looks at specific study skills and more general types of skills, like strategies that students need to transfer to the contexts of their studies (Hyland, 2006; Lea & Street, 1998). The research skills applied in academic writing in the EAW course can also be regarded as part of study skills (Jordan, 1997). The study skills approach was established to accommodate student writing. Study skills such as organising, synthesising and using information can contribute to academic competence in academic settings (Gettinger & Seibert, 2002). In the context of EAW, the nature of the course is to accommodate the students to the writing competency required by their faculties.

The approaches in EGAP and the study skills model have been embedded in the EAW course, and this has limited the understanding of academic writing, at least in terms of pedagogy. It is with this limited context in mind that the EAW lecturers made their comments and suggestions about the course. Their explanations about the students' problems and teaching practices in EAW were all related to the notions of general skills

needed by the students to meet the faculty requirements, and their roles as the provider. In all interviews, none of them shared views reflecting the notions in ESAP such as disciplinary specificity or specialism. Working closely with subject specialists, a practice in ESAP, was also not seen as an option by any of the lecturers. It shows that academic writing at the language centre in this study is only associated with the EGAP and the study skills model of student writing. Additionally, there was also no indication of the notions of the academic socialisation and academic literacies models being applied in the course, even by the senior lecturers. For example, ideas to induct students into the culture of the faculty, the use of genres in teaching (academic socialisation) and power relations in discourse practices (academic literacies) were never mentioned or suggested. This limited perspective calls for a new orientation to expand the course to encompass other perspectives, at least as far as academic writing is concerned.

The EAW course took a pragmatic perspective. This position is particularly revealed by the findings from rights analysis and can be expanded to the larger context of the university in this study. To begin with, pragmatism in EAP posits that “students should accommodate themselves to the demands of academic assignments, behaviours expected in academic classes, and hierarchical arrangements within academic institutions” (Benesch, 2001a, p. 41). The findings from the rights analysis have shown that pragmatism is evident at different levels in the university where this study was conducted. First, at the students’ level, they are to play their roles as students and fit unquestioningly in their courses. This is evident from the interviews with students, who seemed to only play a passive and acquiescent role even when they were having issues with their academic writing course. Secondly, at the teachers’ level, they represent the traditional EAP teachers who are expected to be a conduit for providing knowledge rather than an activist who can encourage questioning among students (Benesch, 2001a). The lecturers’ perseverance in teaching academic writing despite their struggles suggests their acceptance of the role. On the other hand, at the management level, pragmatism can be implied by looking at the responses from those at the lower levels to the ones at the higher level of the hierarchy. For example, the decision made at the higher level with regard to the changes in the EAW course was shown to be taken in a positive or at least an acquiescent way. The absence of resistance shows that

pragmatism as a model or approach has been in the practice in the university in a larger context than just academic writing.

In conclusion, situating academic writing in the context of an EAP course and student needs has expanded my understanding of academic writing in a larger academic context in IIUM. The journey to understand academic writing has revealed the culture that has been shaping the writing practitioners and other stakeholders in the university. The theoretical proposition of this case study is that it would give me an understanding of academic writing from the perceptions of student academic writing needs in the context of an EAP course. In one aspect, the research findings have shown how the mainstream models or approaches in EAP have been embedded in the EAW course. The approaches in EGAP, study skills and pragmatic EAP have been reflected in the EAW course through the stakeholders' attitudes. Additionally, the concepts in pragmatic EAP, or pragmatism, have been embraced at different levels of the university hierarchy, transcending academic writing. My understanding of academic writing in IIUM can thus be summarised as, 'academic writing in IIUM has not expanded from the context of traditional EAP that builds on EGAP, study skills and pragmatic EAP, to venture into other realms of ESAP, academic literacies and critical EAP'.

4.10.4 Implications of the study.

There are several implications of this case study. First, the pragmatic nature of the EAW course calls for the critical EAP approach to balance the power relations and instill a humanistic value of education in the course. Benesch (2001a) mentions that the absence of dialogue in education denies the teachers and students the opportunities to become more fully human. Dialogue, which is one of the important tenets in critical EAP, should be promoted to the extent of involving any stakeholders including students in curricular and pedagogical decision-making process (Benesch, 2001a). Despite its acknowledged role in teaching research writing to fulfill the students' academic writing needs, the lecturers' and students' perceptions have indicated that the course appears to be monologic in nature. In fact, it was evident not just at the course level but also at different levels of the hierarchical structure of the university. In addition, other than for educational purposes, implementing critical EAP is also a way to constitute a balance in

the hierarchical structure of the university. It is hoped the findings, particularly on power relations among the stakeholders, will pave the way for the responsible stakeholders to consider employing a critical approach in the curricular and pedagogical aspects of the EAW course. As argued by Freire, not engaging students in a dialogue is unethical as it leaves the students only with one choice, that is compliance (Benesch, 2001a). Freire (2003) also asserts that, “Without dialogue there is no communication, and without communication there can be no true education” (pp. 92-93). Critical EAP is proposed to be integrated in the curriculum and pedagogical practices of the EAW course, so that a dialogic culture can be instilled among the stakeholders in the university.

Secondly, the findings have shown that academic writing in IIUM has been practised in the realm of the mainstream models or approaches in EAP. The nature of the EAW course is related to the concepts in EGAP, the study skills model of student writing and pragmatic EAP. In spite of their advantages, it is proposed that the EAW course should take initiatives to incorporate at least some concepts from other models or approaches, which are deemed appropriate. For example, a partnership with subject specialists, a practice in ESAP which involves communication and cooperation with the content specialists (i.e., the faculties) can be promoted in the EAW course. It can be implied from the findings that collaborations between the language centre and the faculties may impact the language course positively. It is foreseen that with the input from the faculties, the language centre will be able to have a clearer direction in their curriculum and pedagogical approaches. This is hoped to be one of the ways to address the issues among the students who need to relate what they learn in the EAW course to their needs in the faculties. The use of EGAP as the main model in the language course can be complemented with a small-scale collaboration project to initiate the move.

Thirdly, in a bigger context, the present needs (PSA) and the target needs (TSA) that have been identified from the findings can be used as a source of information for other language centres for their academic writing courses. As a start, since the findings also relate the identified needs with specific faculties (engineering and human sciences), this information can be used as a guide to determine the syllabus of a writing course for the related faculties. In addition, the findings on power relations can be used as a

reference to show how power is exercised in an academic community. It was revealed in this study that the findings on power relations were uncovered after rights analysis was conducted on the interview data from needs analysis. This has proven the usefulness of rights analysis to get to the underlying meanings of existing data. The findings from needs analysis can be used to identify student needs and invent ways to fulfill the needs, whereas the findings from rights analysis are useful to find alternatives to the existing practice that may need attention. Thus, in the context of ESP/ EAP, this study can be used as a reference to conduct research in needs analysis and rights analysis. The common approach to needs analysis usually looks at the target needs and present needs of the learners; on the other hand, this case study juxtaposes needs analysis with rights analysis to identify requirements and to discover possible areas of change (Benesch, 2001a).

Finally, the overarching aim of this research is to understand academic writing in a public university. Academic writing has been commonly practised and made subject at higher learning institutions. On the other hand, academic writing itself is a dynamic subject, which is open to different interpretations of how to go about doing it. Apart from identifying student writing needs, this research has situated academic writing in the context of a language course to uncover the interpretations and underlying issues in that context. This aim has been achieved and has given a bigger understanding to the researcher about the academic culture at the university where the study took place. In the context of EAP, this research has found that there are bigger issues surrounding academic writing which should be considered to allow for a more 'democratic' practice of academic writing.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This case study had been conducted with careful thought and planning. The decision to approach the case using needs analysis and rights analysis was to investigate academic writing, with the aim to understand academic writing in the context of student academic writing needs and the EAW course in IIUM. Apart from understanding academic writing and discovering student needs, the study intended to uncover the elements of power relations among the stakeholders at the university. In terms of methodology, the study employed the complementarity mixed-method design (see 3.3.4.2) and made use of questionnaires and interviews to obtain the findings, as some other studies in needs analysis had done (e.g., Akyel & Ozek, 2010; Dehnad et al., 2010; Abiri, 2013). To further strengthen the triangulation of data, students and lecturers were used as participants (e.g., Sarudin et al., 2009; Akyel & Ozek, 2010; Eslami, 2010; Dehnad et al., 2010; Abiri, 2013). In addition, since many studies in the literature only looked at target needs, the present study explored power relations among the participants. This has given a different perspective to the findings from the needs analysis. This chapter will present the summary of the study, limitations, suggestions for future research, and concluding remarks.

5.2 Summary of the Study

This case study was done to investigate academic writing at a public university, in relation to student writing needs and the context of academic writing in a writing course, English for Academic Writing or EAW and the faculties. It was done at IIUM, a public university in Malaysia. The study employed the complementarity mixed-method design, where questionnaires and interviews were used to collect the data. The total number of respondents for the questionnaire was 157. There were 26 EAW lecturers (N=26, response rate 53%), 39 faculty lecturers (N=39) consisting of 22 from the engineering faculty (n=22, response rate 5.2%) and 17 from the human sciences faculty

(n=17, response rate 6%), and 92 EAW students (N=92) consisting of 48 from the engineering faculty (n=47, response rate 15%) and 45 from the human sciences faculty (n=45, response rate 15%). It should be noted that the response rate for the questionnaire was relatively low; thus, the results were not considered as the main findings of the study. The participants of the case study who were interviewed were 15 EAW lecturers, three ENGIN lecturers, four HS lecturers, four EAW/ENGIN students and four EAW/HS students. Reputational case selection, a method of purposive sampling, was used to recruit the participants.

The data collection for the case study was done in two stages. The first stage involved the administration of online questionnaires via SurveyGizmo to students who were taking EAW at CELPAD in Semester 2, academic year 2014/2015, and interviews with the EAW lecturers. In the second stage, interviews were done with the engineering (ENGIN) lecturers and human sciences (HS) lecturers, as well as engineering students who were taking EAW (EAW/ENGIN students) and human sciences students who were taking EAW (EAW/HS students). Furthermore, online questionnaires were also administered to EAW lecturers, ENGIN lecturers and HS lecturers. The questionnaires were administered by emailing the questionnaire URL to all EAW, ENGIN and HS lecturers.

The research questions of the case study were as follows:

1. What are the EAW lecturers', the faculty lecturers', and students' perceptions of academic writing needs?

2. What are the EAW lecturers', the EAW/ENGIN students' and the EAW/HS students' perceptions of the EAW course?
 - 2.1 What are the EAW lecturers' perceptions of the EAW course in the context of EGAP and ESAP?
 - 2.2 What are the EAW lecturers', the EAW/ENGIN students' and the EAW/HS students' perceptions of the EAW course and student needs?

3. How do the EAW lecturers', the faculty lecturers', and students' perceptions of EAW indicate power relations?

The results of the case study revealed that the EAW lecturers, ENGIN lecturers, HS lecturers, EAW/ENGIN students and EAW/HS students had similar and different perceptions with regard to student academic writing needs. The identified present needs (PSA) were: (1) student needs for research writing skills; (2) student needs for basic language skills; and (3) students have needs which were unmet by EAW. In addition, the student target needs (TSA) were identified as: (1) applying research writing skills upon graduation; (2) writing good research reports; and (3) having a higher level of proficiency in language.

Secondly, the majority of the EAW lecturers and students have a positive view towards the EAW course. In terms of academic writing needs in the EAW course, the study identified four target needs (TSA): (1) the student need for EAW is due to the need to do research; (2) EAW could meet student needs but only in some ways; (3) EAW catered to student needs only for some faculties; and (4) students need an EAW course that focuses more on language.

The case study also revealed that the EAW lecturers had different perceptions of the EAW course in the context of EGAP and ESAP. Most of them felt that EAW was an EGAP course. Out of 10 of them who shared this perception, five of them believed that EAW should be changed to be based on ESAP. The rest of them who felt that EAW should remain as an EGAP course. Finally, evidence of power relations was identified from the perceptions of the stakeholders in the study. They can be divided into two main themes: power struggles and power relationships.

Finally, the overarching aim of this research is to understand academic writing in the context of student academic writing needs and the EAW course in IIUM. It can be concluded from the findings that, ‘academic writing in IIUM has not expanded from the context of traditional EAP that builds on EGAP, study skills and pragmatic EAP, to venture into other realms of ESAP, academic literacies and critical EAP’.

5.3 Limitations of the Study

There were several limitations that may have affected this research in one way or another. First, the study only involved two faculties (ENGIN and HS) other than the

language centre (CELPAD). Since the case study intended to investigate academic writing of the students in IIUM, it is believed that including more faculties would have contributed to better findings.

Second, the case study only employed questionnaires and interviews as the instruments for collecting the data. Even though participant observations were considered at the beginning of the study, they were not carried out. The rationale was that since the study was investigating academic writing needs of students in their faculties, it was difficult to see how an observation to identify writing needs could be done. Firstly, their courses did not require the students to write for their assignments of project papers in class. Secondly, even if they had done so on certain occasions, it would have been logistically difficult to set the time and date for the observation.

Third, the use of questionnaires turned out to be unsuccessful. The response rates of the student questionnaires and the faculty lecturer questionnaires were relatively low, despite prompts and reminders to complete the questionnaires. Requests were made to all the lecturers to ask their students to complete the questionnaires, and the URL of the questionnaire website was put on the main university student Facebook group. A second email was sent to the faculty lecturers as a follow-up to remind them to do the questionnaire. Nevertheless, the response rates did not improve and hence, the results of the questionnaire were not considered as the main findings of the study.

Fourth, the participants for the study also may have not been the best informants. Even though criteria were made (EAW lecturers of different levels of experience, faculty lecturers who mostly required students to write, engineering and human sciences students who did well and not so well in EAW) and the participants were recruited after consulting the key participants, there was always a possibility that they may have not been a reliable source of information. Similarly, as a researcher, even though I tried my best in conducting my research, I was limited by being human. According to Merriam (1998), “the investigator as human instrument is limited by being human – that is, mistakes are made, opportunities are missed, personal biases interfere. Human instruments are as fallible as any other research instrument” (p. 20). I may have tried to follow the guidance for conducting certain procedures, but my weaknesses as a human being might have affected the process in conducting them.

5.4 Suggestions for Future Research

This case study adopted Robinson's (1991) needs analysis and Benesch's (2001a) rights analysis to investigate academic writing needs. According to Benesch, the integration of needs analysis and rights analysis reflects a critical EAP approach. Future research can consider using this approach to look at other aspects of student needs and explore elements of power. In addition, this study did not create a specific instrument for right analysis per se. Instead, it applied rights analysis as the lens to uncover underlying elements of power relations from the interview data. Therefore, future research can consider developing specific instruments for rights analysis.

Secondly, this study only employed survey questionnaire and interviews as its methods of data collection. Even though the justifications for the selection of the methods have been given, and the study did use multiple sources to increase the validity and reliability of the data, it is recommended that future research can consider using multiple methods and sources as one of the ways to further enhance the quality of the findings.

Finally, the present study was done in the context of a public university in Malaysia. Other than one language centre, only two faculties were involved: the engineering and human sciences faculties. Therefore, future research can consider conducting similar research in a different context, and/or involve more faculties. The selection of faculties can also be made to represent different disciplines.

5.5 Concluding Remarks

This study was an attempt to integrate two models in needs analysis: Robinson's (1991) needs analysis and Benesch's (2001a) rights analysis to investigate academic writing at a public university in Malaysia. According to Benesch (1999), needs analysis has been the main method for identifying the content of ESP/EAP curricula. The initial stage of this research had focused only on the needs analysis employing questionnaires and interviews, with the expectations that both instruments would yield sufficient data to identify student academic writing needs. The questionnaires were administered to three groups of stakeholders – the EAW lecturers, faculty lecturers (engineering and

human sciences) and EAW students – where their attitudes towards writing needs and how they were addressed by the language course were elicited. Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with participants from the three groups to gauge their opinions regarding academic writing and student needs.

However, the research had taken a change of direction from its focus on the needs analysis to the application of the rights analysis in analysing the interview data. The change was due to two factors. First, the questionnaire method did not harvest sufficient and meaningful data. This was unfortunately because of the low response rate and the lack of interpretations that could be made from the analysed data to offer an insightful meaning to the phenomenon being studied. Second, the interview data revealed evidence of dissatisfaction suggesting power relations among the stakeholders, which was not primarily anticipated. This development had prompted me as a researcher to analyse this new evidence using a different lens – the critical approach to needs analysis or rights analysis. Further reading and analysis using this approach had led me to reflect on my own role as a language teacher and connect power relations not just to the context of the EAW course but also the hierarchical structure in my institution.

The findings on power relations have given me a new insight of the phenomenon in the academia where power transcends across the institutional hierarchy. Since education can be regarded as “a contested terrain where people are socialized and the future of society is at stake” (Shor, 1992, p. 13), I consider these findings as impactful to education in general and ESP/EAP in particular. As the future of a society is greatly influenced by education, educational issues caused by the people’s diversity should not be ignored, and one of the significant issues is power. Since power can be related to student needs, this study shows that educators or ESP/EAP practitioners can utilise the needs analysis and rights analysis to understand the relationship between them. To my knowledge, at the point when the research was conducted, the number of studies that employed rights analysis was sparse. It is hoped that in the future, more research opportunities will pave the way for the application of rights analysis for the development of ESP/EAP.

References

- Abiri, F. (2013). Exploration of English needs according to teachers and learners in the psychology major in Iranian universities. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70, 821-826.
- Akyel, A. S. & Ozek, Y. (2010). A language needs analysis research at an English medium university in Turkey. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2, 969-975.
- Allison, D. (1994). Comments on Sarah Benesch's "ESL, ideology, and the politics of pragmatism": A reader reacts. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(3), 618-623.
- Allison, D. (1996). Pragmatist discourse and English for academic purposes. *English for Specific Purposes*, 15(2), 85-103.
- Armstrong, M., Dannat, J. & Evans, A. (2012). The development of, and response to, an academic writing module for electrical engineers at the University of Bath. *Journal of Learning Development in Higher Education, Special Edition: Developing Writing in STEM Disciplines*, 1-15.
- Baik, C., & Greig, J. (2009). Improving the academic outcomes of undergraduate ESL students: the case for discipline-based academic skills programs. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 28(4), 401-416.
- Bailey, G., & Peoples, J. (2013). *Essentials of cultural anthropology*. Belmont, CA: Cengage Learning.
- Barber, C. L. (1962). Some measureable characteristics of modern scientific prose. In J. M. Swales (Ed.), *Episodes in ESP*. (pp. 1-14). Exeter, England: Pergamon.
- Barton, D., & Hamilton, M. (1998). *Local literacies: Reading and writing in one community*. London, England: Routledge.
- Basturkmen, H. (2003). Specificity and ESP course design. *RELC Journal*, 34(1), 48-63.
- Basturkmen, H. (2006). *Ideas and options in English for specific purposes*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report*, 13(4), 544-559.

- Becher, T., & Trowler, P. (2001). *Academic tribes and territories: Intellectual enquiry and the culture of disciplines*. Buckingham, England: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Belcher, D. D. (2006). English for specific purposes: Teaching to perceived needs and imagined futures in worlds of work, study, and everyday life. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 133-156.
- Benesch, S. (1993). ESL, ideology, and the politics of pragmatism. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27(4), 705-717.
- Benesch, S. (1996). Needs analysis and curriculum development in EAP: An example of a critical approach. *TESOL Quarterly*, 723-738.
- Benesch, S. (1999). Rights analysis: Studying power relations in an academic setting. *English for Specific Purposes*, 18(4), 313-327.
- Benesch, S. (2001a). *Critical English for academic purposes*. London, England: Blackwell.
- Benesch, S. (2001b). Critical pragmatism: A politics of L2 composition. In T. Silva & P. K. Matsuda (Eds.), *On second language writing* (pp. 161-172). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Benesch, S. (2009). Theorizing and practicing critical English for academic purposes. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 8(2), 81-85.
- Braine, G. (1989). Writing in science and technology: An analysis of assignments from ten undergraduate courses. *English for Specific Purposes*, 8(1), 3-15.
- Braine, G. (2002). Academic literacy and the nonnative speaker graduate student. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 1(1), 59-68.
- Brown, J. D. (2001). *Using surveys in language programs*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, J. D. (2016). *Introducing needs analysis and English for specific purposes*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101.
- Bryman, A. (2012). *Social research methods*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

- Buzzi, O., Grimes, S., & Rolls, A. (2012). Writing for the discipline in the discipline? *Teaching in Higher Education*, 17(4), 479-484.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (2002). *Critical academic writing and multilingual students*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.
- Casanave, C. P., & Hubbard, P. (1992). The writing assignments and writing problems of doctoral students: Faculty perceptions, pedagogical issues, and needed research. *English for Specific Purposes*, 11(1), 33-49.
- Chambers, F. (1980). A re-evaluation of needs analysis in ESP. *The ESP Journal*, 1(1), 25-33.
- Cherryholmes, C. H. (1988). *Power and criticism: Poststructural investigations in education*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Chun, C. W. (2016). Addressing racialized multicultural discourses in an EAP textbook: Working toward a critical pedagogies approach. *TESOL Quarterly*, 50(1), 109-131.
- Coffin, C., & Donohue, J. P. (2012). Academic Literacies and systemic functional linguistics: How do they relate? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11(1), 64-75.
- Coolican, H. (1995). *Introduction to research methods and statistics in psychology* (2nd ed.). London, England: Hodder & Stoughton.
- Cowling, J. D. (2007). Needs analysis: Planning a syllabus for a series of intensive workplace courses at a leading Japanese company. *English for Specific Purposes*, 26(4), 426-442.
- Coxhead, A. (2012). Academic vocabulary, writing and English for academic purposes: Perspectives from second language learners. *RELC Journal*, 43(1), 137-145.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Crookes, G. V. (2013). *Critical ELT in action: Foundations, promises, praxis*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- David, A. R., Thang, S. M., & Azman, H. (2015). Accommodating low

- proficiency ESL students' language learning needs through an online writing support system. *e-BANGI*, 10(1), 118-127.
- Dehnad, A., Bagherzadeh, R., Bigdeli S., Hatami, K. & Hosseini, F. (2010). Syllabus revision: a needs analysis study. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 9, 1307-2312.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Drury, H. (2004). Teaching academic writing on screen: a search for best practice. In L. J. Rayelli & R. A. Ellis (Eds.), *Analysing academic writing: Contextualized frameworks* (pp. 233-253). London, England: Continuum.
- Dudley-Evans, T. & St John, M. J. (1998). *Developments in English for specific purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Duff, P. (2008). *Case study research in applied linguistics*. New York, NY: Erlbaum/Taylor & Francis.
- Duff, P. A. (2010). Language socialization into academic discourse communities. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 30, 169-192.
- Durkin, K., & Main, A. (2002). Discipline-based study skills support for first-year undergraduate students. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 3(1), 24-39.
- Dwyer, S. C., & Buckle, J. L. (2009). The space between: On being an insider-outsider in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 8(1), 54-63.
- Eggs, S. (1994). *An introduction to systemic functional linguistics*. London, England: Pinter.
- Elander, J., Harrington, K., Norton, L., Robinson, H., & Reddy, P. (2006). Complex skills and academic writing: a review of evidence about the types of learning required to meet core assessment criteria. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 31(1), 71-90.
- Erzberger, C., & Prein, G. (1997). Triangulation: Validity and empirically-based hypothesis construction. *Quality and Quantity*, 31(2), 141-154.
- Eslami, Z. R. (2010). Teachers' voice vs. students' voice: a needs analysis approach

- to English for academic purposes (EAP) in Iran. *English Language Teaching*, 3(1), 3-11.
- Fairclough, N. (2012). Critical discourse analysis. In J. P. Gee & M. Handford (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of discourse analysis* (pp. 9-20). Oxon, England: Routledge.
- Flowerdew, L. (2013). Needs analysis and curriculum development in ESP. In B. Paltridge & S. Starfield (Eds.), *The handbook of English for specific purposes* (pp. 325-346). West Sussex, England: Wiley & Sons.
- Freire, P. (2003). *Pedagogy of the oppressed* (30th ed.). New York, NY: Continuum.
- Gettinger, M., & Seibert, J. K. (2002). Contributions of study skills to academic competence. *School Psychology Review*, 31(3), 350-365.
- Grabe, W. (2001). Notes toward a theory of second language writing. In T. Silva & P. K. Matsuda (Eds.), *On second language writing* (pp. 39-57). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Greene, J., & McClintock, C. (1985). Triangulation in evaluation: Design and analysis issues. *Evaluation Review*, 9(5), 523-545.
- Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 11(3), 255-274.
- Greene, S., & Higgins, L. (1994). Once upon a time?: The use of retrospective accounts in building theory in composition. *Speaking about writing: Reflections on research methodology*, 8, 115-140.
- Gustafsson, M. (2011). Academic literacies approaches for facilitating language for specific purposes. *Ibérica: Revista de la Asociación Europea de Lenguas para Fines Específicos (AELFE)*, 22, 101-122.
- Halliday, M A. K., McIntosh, A. & Stevens, P. (1964). *The linguistic sciences and language teaching*. London, England: Longman.
- Hamp-Lyons, L. (2011). What Is EAP? In H. Eli (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (Vol. 2, pp. 89-105). New York, NY: Routledge.

- Hansen, J. G. (2000). Interactional conflicts among audience, purpose, and content knowledge in the acquisition of academic literacy in an EAP course. *Written Communication, 17*(1), 27-52.
- Harwood, N., & Hadley, G. (2004). Demystifying institutional practices: Critical pragmatism and the teaching of academic writing. *English for Specific Purposes, 23*(4), 355-377.
- Helmer, K. A. (2013). Critical English for academic purposes: Building on learner, teacher, and program strengths. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 12*(4), 273-287.
- Herrington, A. J. (1985). Writing in academic settings : A study of the contexts for writing in two college chemical engineering courses. *Research in the Teaching of English, 19*(4), 331-361.
- Hewings, A. (2004). Developing discipline-specific writing: an analysis of undergraduate geography essays. In L. J. Rayelli & R. A. Ellis (Eds.), *Analysing academic writing: Contextualized frameworks* (pp. 131-152). London, England: Continuum.
- Hobbs, V. (2014). Accounting for the great divide: Features of clarity in analytic philosophy journal articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 15*, 27-36.
- Huang, L.S. (2010). Seeing eye to eye? The academic writing needs of graduate and undergraduate students from students' and instructors' perspectives. *Language Teaching Research, 14*(4), 517-539.
- Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes: A learning-centred approach*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyland, K. (2002). Specificity revisited: how far should we go now? *English for Specific Purposes, 21*, 385-395.
- Hyland, K. (2006). *English for academic purposes: An advanced resource book*. Oxon, England: Routledge.
- Hyland, K. (2013a). Faculty feedback: Perceptions and practices in L2 disciplinary writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 22*(3), 240-253.
- Hyland, K. (2013b). Writing in the university: education, knowledge and reputation.

- Language Teaching*, 46(1), 53-70.
- Hyland, K. (2013c). ESP and writing. In B. Paltridge & S. Starfield (Eds.), *The handbook of English for specific purposes* (pp. 95-113). West Sussex, England: Wiley & Sons.
- Hyland, K. & Hamp-Lyons, L. (2002). EAP: issues and directions. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 1, 1-12.
- Ibrahim, N., & Nambiar, R. M. (2012). Scaffoldings in academic writing: The role of intercultural rhetoric and genre analysis in academic socialization. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 59, 438-442.
- Ismail, N., Hussin, S., & Darus, S. (2012). ESL students' attitude, learning problems, and needs for online writing. *GEMA: Online Journal of Language Studies*, 12(4), 1089-1107.
- Irvin, L. L. (2010). What is "academic" writing?. In C. Lowe & P. Zemliansky (Eds.), *Writing spaces: reading on writing* (Vol. 1, pp. 3-17). West Lafayette, IN: Parlor Press.
- Jacobs, C. (2005). On being an insider on the outside: New spaces for integrating academic literacies. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 10(4), 475-487.
- James, M. A. (2010). An investigation of learning transfer in English-for-general-academic-purposes writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 19, 183-206.
- Jasso-Aguilar, R. (1999). Sources, methods and triangulation in needs analysis: A critical perspective in a case study of Waikiki hotel maids. *English for Specific Purposes*, 18(1), 27-46.
- Jenkins, S., Jordan, M. K., & Weiland, P. O. (1993). The role of writing in graduate engineering education: A survey of faculty beliefs and practices. *English for Specific Purposes*, 12(1), 51-67.
- Johns, A. M. (2013). The history of English for specific purposes research. In B. Paltridge & S. Starfield (Eds.), *The handbook of English for specific purposes* (pp. 5-30). West Sussex, England: Wiley & Sons.
- Johns, A. M. & Makalela, L. (2011). Needs analysis, critical ethnography, and

- context: perspectives from the client – and the consultant. In D. Belcher, A. M. Johns & B. Paltridge (Eds.), *New directions in English for specific purposes research* (pp. 6-24). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.
- Jordan, R. R. (1989). English for academic purposes (EAP). *Language Teaching*, 22(3), 150-164.
- Jordan, R. R. (1997). *English for academic purposes: a guide and resource book for teachers*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Kanuha, V. K. (2000). “Being” native versus “going native”: Conducting social work research as an insider. *Social Work*, 45(5), 439-447.
- Kassim, H., & Ali, F. (2010). English communicative events and skills needed at the workplace: Feedback from the industry. *English for Specific Purposes*, 29(3), 168-182.
- Khany, R., & Tarlani-Aliabadi, H. (2016). Studying power relations in an academic setting: Teachers' and students' perceptions of EAP classes in Iran. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 21, 72-85.
- Kivunja, C., & Kuyini, A. B. (2017). Understanding and applying research paradigms in educational contexts. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 6(5), 26-41.
- Lea, M. R. (2004). Academic literacies: A pedagogy for course design. *Studies in Higher Education*, 29(6), 739-756.
- Lea, M. R., & Street, B. V. (1998). Student writing in higher education: An academic literacies approach. *Studies in Higher Education*, 23(2), 157-172.
- Lea, M. R., & Street, B. V. (2006). The “academic literacies” model: Theory and applications. *Theory Into Practice*, 45(4), 368-377.
- Leopold, L. (2010). Teaching writing within the disciplines: a viable approach for English for academic purposes (EAP) instructors. *The Catesol Journal*, 22(1), 167-188.
- Lillis, T. (2003). Student Writing as “Academic Literacies”: Drawing on Bakhtin to Move from Critique to Design. *Language and Education*, 17(3), 192-207.
- Lillis, T., & Scott, M. (2007). Defining academic literacies research: issues of epistemology, ideology and strategy. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4(1), 5-32.
- Liu, J. Y, Chang, Y. J., Yang, F. Y. & Sun, Y. C. (2011). Is what I need what I want?

- Reconceptualising college students' needs in English courses for general and specific/academic purposes. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10, 271-280.
- Long, M. H. (2005). A rationale for needs analysis and needs analysis research. In M. H. Long (Ed.), *Second language needs analysis* (pp. 1-16). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Luke, A. (2004). Two takes on the critical. In B. Norton & K. Toohey (Eds.), *Critical pedagogies and language learning* (pp. 21-29). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Malaysian Public Service Department (2013). *Pekeliling perkhidmatan bilangan 36 tahun 2013* [Service circular no. 36 2013]. Retrieved from <http://docs.jpa.gov.my/docs/pp/2013/pp362013.pdf>
- McKay, S. L. (2006). *Researching second language classrooms*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Mehrdad, A. G. (2012). A subjective needs assessment of EGP students. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 31, 546-554.
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education: Revised and expanded from 'case study research in education'*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (2nd ed.). San Fransisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Miles, M.B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Monroe, J. (2008). Writing, assessment, and the authority of the disciplines. *LI Educational Studies in Language and Literature*, 8(2), 59-88.
- Morgan, B. (2009). Fostering transformative practitioners for critical EAP: Possibilities and challenges. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 8(2), 86-99.
- Morgan, D. L. (2007). Paradigms lost and pragmatism regained: Methodological implications of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 48-76.
- Morita, N. (2004). Negotiating participation and identity in second language academic

- communities. *TESOL Quarterly*, 38(4), 573-603.
- Munby, J. (1978). *Communicative syllabus design: a sociolinguistic model for defining the content of purpose-specific language programmes*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Noori, M., & Mazdayasna, G. (2015). EAP programs in a nonnative context: A critical approach. *International Journal of Language and Applied Linguistics*, 1(3), 46-53. Retrieved from <http://www.ijlal.ir>.
- Norton, B., & Toohey, K. (2004). Critical pedagogies and language learning: An introduction. In B. Norton & K. Toohey (Eds.), *Critical pedagogies and language learning* (pp. 1-17). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Paltridge, B. (2004). Academic writing. *Language Teaching*, 37(02), 87-105.
- Pennycook, A. (1989). The concept of method, interested knowledge, and the politics of language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23(4), 589-618.
- Pennycook, A. (1997). Vulgar pragmatism, critical pragmatism, and EAP. *English for Specific Purposes*, 16(4), 253-269.
- Peoples, J., & Bailey, G. (2012). *Humanity: An introduction to cultural anthropology* (9th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning.
- Reynolds, A. (1992). Charting the changes in junior faculty: Relationships among socialization, acculturation, and gender. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 63(6), 637-652.
- Robinson, P. (1991). *ESP today: A practitioner's guide*. Hertfordshire, England: Prentice Hall.
- Rossmann, G. B., & Wilson, B. L. (1985). Numbers and words combining quantitative and qualitative methods in a single large-scale evaluation study. *Evaluation Review*, 9(5), 627-643.
- Russell, D. R., Lea, M., Parker, J., Street, B., & Donahue, T. (2009). Exploring notions of genre in 'academic literacies' and 'writing across the curriculum': Approaches across countries and contexts. In C. Bazerman, A. Bonini & D. Figueiredo (Eds.) *Genre in a changing world. Perspectives on writing* (pp. 459-491). Fort Collins, CO: WAC Clearinghouse.

- Santos, T. (1992). Ideology in composition: L1 and ESL. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 1*(1), 1-15.
- Santos, T. (2001). The place of politics in second language writing. In T. Silva & P. K. Matsuda (Eds.), *On second language writing* (pp. 173-190). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Sarudin, I., Zubairi, A. M., Nordin, M. S., & Omar, M. (2008). The English language proficiency of Malaysian public university students. In *Enhancing the quality of higher education through research: Shaping future policy* (pp. 40-65). Retrieved from <http://irep.iium.edu.my>.
- Sarudin, I. H., Zubairi, A. M., & Ali, A. M. (2009). A comparative analysis of engineering students' problems in speaking and writing. In *Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference of Teaching and Learning* (pp. 1-8). Retrieved from <https://my.laureate.net>.
- Serafini, E. J., Lake, J. B., & Long, M. H. (2015). Needs analysis for specialized learner populations: Essential methodological improvements. *English for Specific Purposes, 40*, 11-26.
- Shah, M. I. A., Ismail, Y., Esa, Z., & Muhamad, A. J. (2012). Language learning strategies of English for specific purposes students at a public university in Malaysia. *English Language Teaching, 6*(1), 153-161.
- Shor, I. (1992). *Empowering education: Critical teaching for social change*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Spack, R. (1988). Initiating ESL students into the academic discourse community: how far should we go? *TESOL Quarterly, 22*(1), 29-51.
- Spence, P., & Liu, G. Z. (2013). Engineering English and the high-tech industry: A case study of an English needs analysis of process integration engineers at a semiconductor manufacturing company in Taiwan. *English for Specific Purposes, 32*(2), 97-109.
- Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. New York, NY: Sage.
- Starfield, S. (2013). Critical perspectives on ESP. In B. Paltridge & S. Starfield (Eds.), *The handbook of English for specific purposes* (pp. 461-479). West Sussex, England: Wiley & Sons.

- Street, B. V. (1984). *Literacy in theory and practice*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Street, B. V. (1995). *Social literacies: Critical approaches to literacy in development, ethnography and education*. Oxon, England: Routledge.
- Swales, J. M. (1985). *Episodes in ESP*. Exeter, England: Pergamon.
- Swales, J. M. (1997). English as Tyrannosaurus rex. *World Englishes*, 16(3), 373-382.
- Swales, J. M. (2000). Languages for specific purposes. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 20, 59-76.
- Swales, J. M., Barks, D., Ostermann, A. C., & Simpson, R. C. (2001). Between critique and accommodation: Reflections on an EAP course for masters of architecture students. *English for Specific Purposes*, 20, 439-458.
- Swales, J. M., & Feak, C. B. (2005). *Academic writing for graduate students: Essential tasks and skills* (2nd ed.). Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan.
- Tajino, A., James, R., & Kijima, K. (2005). Beyond needs analysis: soft systems methodology for meaningful collaboration in EAP course design. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 4(1), 27-42.
- Tarone, E., Dwyer, S., Gillette, S. & Icke, V. (1981). On the use of the passive in astrophysics journal papers. In J. M. Swales (Ed.), *Episodes in ESP* (pp. 188-205). Exeter, England: Pergamon.
- The International Islamic University Malaysia (n.d. -a). Centre for languages and pre-university academic development. Retrieved from <http://www.iium.edu.my/kulliyyah/celpad>
- The International Islamic University Malaysia (n.d. -b). Kulliyyah of engineering. Retrieved from <http://www.iium.edu.my/kulliyyah/koe>
- The International Islamic University Malaysia (n.d. -c). Kulliyyah of Islamic revealed knowledge and human sciences. Retrieved from <http://www.iium.edu.my/kulliyyah/kirkhs>
- The International Islamic University Malaysia (2011). *LE4000: English for Academic Writing*. [Course outline].
- The International Islamic University Malaysia (2017). *IIUM staff handbook*. Retrieved from

<http://www.iium.edu.my/media/19249/IIUM%20STAFF%20HANDBOOK%20V2.pdf>

- Thesen, L. (2001). Modes, literacies and power: A university case study. *Language and Education*, 15(2-3), 132-145.
- Turner, J. (2012). Academic literacies: Providing a space for the socio-political dynamics of EAP. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11(1), 17-25.
- West, R. (1994). Needs analysis in language teaching. *Language Teaching*, 27(01), 1-19.
- Widdowson, H. G. (1983). *Learning purpose and language use*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Wingate, U. (2012). Using academic literacies and genre-based models for academic writing instruction: A “literacy” journey. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11(1), 26-37.
- Wingate, U., & Tribble, C. (2012). The best of both worlds? Towards an English for academic purposes/academic literacies writing pedagogy. *Studies in Higher Education*, 37(4), 481-495.
- Winthrop, R. H. (1991). *Dictionary of concepts in cultural anthropology*. Westport, CT: ABC-CLIO.
- Wodak, R., & Meyer, M., (2001). Critical discourse analysis: History, agenda, theory and methodology. In R. Wodak & M. Meyer (Eds.), *Methods of critical discourse analysis* (pp. 1-33). London, England: Sage.
- Yang, Y., & Badger, R. (2015). How IELTS preparation courses support students: IELTS and academic socialisation. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 39(4), 438-465.
- Yildirim, R., & Ilin, G. (2009). Tutors’ and students’ perceptions of what makes a good undergraduate research paper. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 1(1), 1636-1640.
- Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Zhu, W. (2004). Faculty views on the importance of writing, the nature of academic

writing, and teaching and responding to writing in the disciplines. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 13(1), 29-48.

Appendices

Appendix A EAP Course Outline



INTERNATIONAL ISLAMIC UNIVERSITY MALAYSIA COURSE OUTLINE

Kulliyah	Centre for Languages and Pre-University Academic Development (CELPAD)		
Department	English Language Division		
Programme	All programmes		
Course Title	English for Academic Purposes		
Course Code	LE 4000		
Status	Graduation requirement		
Level	Undergraduate		
Credit Hours	3		
Contact Hours	6		
Pre-requisites (if any)			
Co-requisites (if any)			
Instructional Strategies	Lecture/Tutorials		
Course Assessment State weightage of each type of assessment.	Learning Outcome	Method	Percentage
	2,5,6	Oral Argument Oral Presentation	5% 5%
	1,2,3,4,5,6	Research outline Timed in-class argumentative essay	10% 10%
	1,2,3,4,5,6	Argumentative Research paper	30%
	1,2,3,4,5,6	Final examination	40%
	Total		100%

Instructor(s)	To be determined
Semester Offered	Semester 1 and 2
Course Synopsis	English for Academic Purposes is a learner-centred course designed for learners to conduct library research in order to produce an argumentative <i>kulliyah</i> related research paper. Learners experience a step-by-step approach in writing an academic research paper.
Course Objectives	<p>The objectives of the course are to enable students to:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. synthesize <i>kulliyah</i> related information from academic and Islamic primary sources in 2500 word written arguments, 2. evaluate <i>kulliyah</i> related information from academic and Islamic primary sources in 2500 word written arguments, 3. evaluate appropriate techniques in citing academic and Islamic primary sources, 4. synthesize <i>kulliyah</i> related information, language forms and language functions in presenting oral arguments, 5. evaluate relevant academic and Islamic perspectives in relation to stance, 6. develop confidence in being responsible for the management of one's own continuous process of learning, and 7. critically appraise one's own understanding on the focused research topic.
Learning Outcomes	<p>At the end of the course, students will be able to:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. compose a well organized and a well supported argumentative academic research paper, 2. appraise views on <i>kulliyah</i> related topics and justify own stance, 3. applying relevant APA citation techniques in supporting academic research arguments, 4. construct an argumentative academic research paper using correct grammar and tone, and 5. justify arguments with relevant academic and Islamic perspectives.

Appendix B EAW Course Outline (Semester 1, 2011/2012)



INTERNATIONAL ISLAMIC UNIVERSITY MALAYSIA
COURSE OUTLINE

1	Kulliyyah/Institute	CELPAD																	
2	Department/Centre	English Language Division																	
3	Programme	All																	
4	Name of Course / Mode	English for Academic Writing																	
5	Course Code	LE 4000																	
6	Name(s) of Academic staff / Instructor(s)	TBD																	
7	Rationale for the inclusion of the course / module in the programme	To equip students with the necessary English language skills for academic writing																	
8	Semester and Year Offered	Semester 1 & 2, Year 3 & 4																	
9	Status	Required																	
10	Level	Undergraduate																	
11	Proposed Start Date	Semester 1, 2011/2012																	
12	Batch of Students Affected	Semester 1, 2011/2012																	
13	Total Student Learning Time (SLT)	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th colspan="3">Teaching Related Activities</th> <th>Assessment Related Activities</th> <th rowspan="2">Total Guided and Independent Learning</th> </tr> <tr> <th>Lecture</th> <th>Tutorial</th> <th>Practical</th> <th>Others</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>42</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>69</td> <td>111</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>			Teaching Related Activities			Assessment Related Activities	Total Guided and Independent Learning	Lecture	Tutorial	Practical	Others	42			69	111	
Teaching Related Activities			Assessment Related Activities	Total Guided and Independent Learning															
Lecture	Tutorial	Practical	Others																
42			69	111															
14	Credit Value (hours)	3																	

15	Pre-requisites <i>(if any)</i>	Pass EPT										
16	Co-requisites <i>(if any)</i>	None										
17	Course Objectives	The objectives of this course are to produce students who can: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. use the language for research writing 5. apply critical reading skills when reading academic texts 6. use appropriate techniques in citing sources 										
18	Learning Outcomes	By the end of the course, students should be able to: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. use appropriate language to review the literature (C3)(CTPS3) 2. apply appropriate language to write a research paper (C3) 3. demonstrate appropriate language register to write an academic piece of writing (A3)(LL2) 4. apply appropriate register to present research findings or academic paper (C2)(CTPS3) 										
19	Transferable Skills: <i>Skills and how they are developed and assessed. Project and practical experience and internship</i>	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Skills <i>(corresponding to LOs)</i></th> <th>Skill development techniques</th> <th>Assessment method</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Practical skills</td> <td>Presentations, library skill, writing skills</td> <td>Formative and summative</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Critical thinking skills</td> <td>Critical reading skills</td> <td>Formative and summative</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Skills <i>(corresponding to LOs)</i>	Skill development techniques	Assessment method	Practical skills	Presentations, library skill, writing skills	Formative and summative	Critical thinking skills	Critical reading skills	Formative and summative	
Skills <i>(corresponding to LOs)</i>	Skill development techniques	Assessment method										
Practical skills	Presentations, library skill, writing skills	Formative and summative										
Critical thinking skills	Critical reading skills	Formative and summative										
20	Teaching-Learning and Assessment Strategy	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Teaching-learning strategy</th> <th>Assessment strategy</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Students are taught to appraise and summarise relevant information from different reading sources.</td> <td>Reading</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Students are taught to write (paraphrase, summarise, synthesize, comment).</td> <td>Writing</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Students are taught how to prepare an outline of presentations, correct tone and techniques.</td> <td>Presentation</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Students write a topic based on relevant reading areas identified.</td> <td>Term paper</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Teaching-learning strategy	Assessment strategy	Students are taught to appraise and summarise relevant information from different reading sources.	Reading	Students are taught to write (paraphrase, summarise, synthesize, comment).	Writing	Students are taught how to prepare an outline of presentations, correct tone and techniques.	Presentation	Students write a topic based on relevant reading areas identified.	Term paper
Teaching-learning strategy	Assessment strategy											
Students are taught to appraise and summarise relevant information from different reading sources.	Reading											
Students are taught to write (paraphrase, summarise, synthesize, comment).	Writing											
Students are taught how to prepare an outline of presentations, correct tone and techniques.	Presentation											
Students write a topic based on relevant reading areas identified.	Term paper											
21	Course Synopsis	This course is designed for students to experience a step-by-step approach in writing an academic research paper through critical reading and thinking. Students are also required to present their findings using multimedia presentation.										
22	Mapping of course / module to the Programme Learning Outcomes											

Learning outcome of the course		Programme Outcomes									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	knowledge to use appropriate language to review the literature										
2	knowledge on to apply appropriate language to write a research paper										
3	ability to demonstrate appropriate language register to write an academic piece of writing										
4	ability to extend appropriate register to present research findings or academic paper										

Content outline of the course / module and the SLT per topic		
Weeks	Tasks	Learning Hours
1	Introduction to the course <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Format and layout of the research Choosing a topic 	3
2	Describing aims and objectives <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expressing purpose <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Infinitives Future & present tenses Writing definitions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Present tenses 	3
3	Describing aims and objectives-Statement of problem & research questions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expressing certainty and doubt <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Modal auxiliary – past and present Hedging: adverbs, adjectives, verbs Boosters: adverbs, adjectives, verbs Questioning <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Wh-questions (or information questions) – What is Yes/No questioning 	3
4	Describing procedures and methods <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expressing reasons and explanation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cause and effect Subordinators Conjunctions Expressing development and changes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Transition 	3
5	Describing procedures and methods <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describing a sequence of events/time relations Describing developments and changes 	3
6	Writing Literature Review <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Critical reading <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Making notes and writing up notes Quoting 	3
7	Writing Literature Review <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Paraphrasing active and passive, style 	3

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Summarizing synonyms and antonyms sequence of information grammatical structure • Synthesizing word forms & sentence structure • Citing – language expression • Writing a list of references 	
8	Presenting and discussing results <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classifying / categorizing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Nouns, tenses • Giving examples <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ For instance, for example, as such.. • Expressing degrees of certainty <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Adverbs of degree • Describing graphs and charts <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Selected tenses (present, past, continuous, modals) 	3
9	Presenting and discussing results <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supporting an argument <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Illustrating and exemplifying ideas • Refuting arguments, ideas and opinions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ To + infinitive, transitions) 	3
10	Presenting and discussing results <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expressing reasons and explanations <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Cause and effects • Offering evaluative comments on opinions and arguments <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Tenses, useful expressions • Reporting and narrating <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Reported speech ○ Passive & active ○ Tenses • Presentation skills 	3
11	Drawing conclusions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • overview of conclusion <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ modal auxiliary 	3
12	Drawing conclusions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • writing conclusion and abstract <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ tenses 	3
13	Accuracy: Revising, editing & proofreading <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Punctuation ○ Spelling ○ Format ○ Subject-verb agreement 	3
14	Accuracy: Revising, editing & proofreading <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Run-on sentences ○ Fragments ○ Misplaced modifiers ○ Choppy sentences 	3

Appendix C EAW Student Questionnaire

STUDENTS' NEEDS & PERCEPTIONS OF EAW

SCHOOL OF ENGLISH, THE UNIVERSITY OF SHEFFIELD, UK

Dear respondent,

The purpose of this survey is to investigate the students' needs and perceptions of English for Academic Writing (EAW) at the International Islamic University Malaysia. Please complete the survey as truthfully as possible. There are only 40 questions in this survey which will only take about six to ten minutes to answer. Your responses will be strictly **CONFIDENTIAL** and used for the purpose of this research only. By taking part in this survey, you are giving your consent to the researcher to have access to your anonymised responses and use the data in future research. Your identity will not be linked with the research materials, and you will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that result from the research. Should you not wish to answer any particular question or questions, you are free to decline and withdraw from taking part in this survey.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Shahrul Nizam Mohd Basari
PhD candidate
The University of Sheffield, UK
Phone no: +447442982462
Email: snmohdbasari1@sheffield.ac.uk

Background information

MATRIC NO:

1. Age:

- < 17 years old
- 17 - 19 years old
- 20 - 22 years old
- 23 - 25 years old
- 26 - 28 years old
- > 28 years old

2. Gender:

- Male
- Female

3. Nationality:

- Malaysian
- Other

4. Ethnicity:

- Malay
- Chinese
- Indian
- Other

5. Kulliyah:

- AIKOL
- KOED
- KENMS
- KAED
- KICT
- KOE
- KIRKH
- S KAHS
- KOM
- KON
- KOS
- KOP
- KOD
- KLM

6. Year of study:

- First year
- Second year
- Third year
- Fourth year
-

7. My English language qualification when I entered kulliyyah was:

- EPT
- IELTS
- TOEF
- L

Linguistic information

8. I have a good command of English language generally.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Undecided
- Agree

- Strongly Agree

9. I am able to speak English very fluently.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

10. I am able to write in English very fluently.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

11. My English has been good even before I took EAW.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

12. Please rank the following language skills according to your own current strength of the skills by dragging and dropping the following items (first being the strongest and last being the weakest):

Drag items from the left-hand list into the right-hand list to order them.

Listening	→	
Speaking	→	
Reading	→	
Writing	→	

Perceptions of EAW

13. I understand what EAW is all about.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

14. The objectives of EAW are clear.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

15. The content of EAW is in line with its objectives.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

16. The materials used in EAW (e.g. notes, books, etc.) are effective to achieve its objectives.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

17. The amount of materials used in EAW is sufficient.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

18. The time allocated for EAW per week is sufficient.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

19. The assessment (e.g. assignments, exams, etc.) in EAW is effective to achieve its objectives.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

20. The lecturer knows exactly what to teach in EAW.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

21. The lecturer is able to teach EAW confidently.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

22. I have a better understanding of academic writing now compared to before I took EAW.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

23. I can apply my existing English language writing skills (e.g. constructing sentences, summarizing, paraphrasing, synthesizing, etc.) in EAW easily.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

24. EAW has improved not just my skills in academic writing, but also my English generally.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

25. EAW allows me to use kulliyah-related materials in the course.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

26. I can benefit from EAW in my studies in my kulliyah.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

27. EAW is relevant to my studies in my kulliyah.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

28. EAW and academic studies in my kulliyah should be related.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

29. Please choose which statement represents your opinion on the current EAW:

- EAW is a 'general-academic-purposes' course that deals with the language and practices common to all students.
- EAW is a 'specific-academic-purposes' course that is concerned with the specific needs of students in particular disciplines.

Perceptions of academic writing

30. Writing is the most important language skill for my kulliyah.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

31. Academic writing is very important for my kulliyah.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

32. Research writing is very important for my kulliyah.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

33. It is important for students in my kulliyah to know how to cite academic sources.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

34. It is important for students in my kulliyah to be able to use appropriate language to review the literature.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

35. It is important for students in my kulliyah to be able to apply appropriate language to write a research paper.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

36. It is important for students in my kulliyah to be able to demonstrate appropriate language to write an academic piece of writing.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

37. It is important for students in my kulliyah to be able to apply appropriate language to present research findings or academic paper.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

38. Knowledge of academic writing is relevant to students in my kulliyah.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

39. Please rank the following language skills according to its importance for a student in your kulliyyah by dragging and dropping the following items (first being the most important and last being the least important):

Drag items from the left-hand list into the right-hand list to order them.

Listening	→	
Speaking	→	
Reading	→	
Writing	→	

40. Please write your opinion/comments on EAW in the box below, if you have any.

CELPAD LECTURERS' PERCEPTIONS OF STUDENTS' ACADEMIC WRITING NEEDS AND EAW**SCHOOL OF ENGLISH, THE UNIVERSITY OF SHEFFIELD, UK**

Dear respondent,

The purpose of this survey is to investigate the students' needs and perceptions of English for Academic Writing (EAW) at the International Islamic University Malaysia. Please complete the survey as truthfully as possible. There are only 41 questions in this survey which will only take about eight to ten minutes to answer. Your responses will be strictly CONFIDENTIAL and used for the purpose of this research only. By taking part in this survey, you are giving your consent to the researcher to have access to your anonymised responses and use the data in future research. Your identity will not be linked with the research materials, and you will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that result from the research. Should you not wish to answer any particular question or questions, you are free to decline and withdraw from taking part in this survey.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Shahrul Nizam Mohd Basari
PhD candidate
The University of Sheffield, UK
Phone no: +447442982462
Email: snmohdbasari1@sheffield.ac.uk

Background information

1. Age:

- < 25 years old
- 34 years old
- 35 - 44 years old
- 45 - 54 years old
- > 54 years old

2. Gender:**3. Nationality:**

- Malaysian
- Other (please state)

5. Highest academic qualification:

- PhD
- Master's Degree
- Bachelor's Degree
- Other (please state)

6. Years of teaching experience in EAW/EAP in CELPAD:

- More than 20 years
- 16 - 20 years
- 11 - 15 years
- 6 - 10 years
- Less than 6 years

Perceptions of EAW

7. The objectives of EAW are clear.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

8. The content of EAW is in line with its objectives.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

9. The materials used in EAW (e.g. notes, books, etc.) are effective to achieve its objectives.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

10. The amount of materials used in EAW is sufficient.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

11. The time allocated for EAW per week is sufficient.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

12. The assessment (e.g. assignments, exams, etc.) in EAW is effective to achieve its objectives.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

13. I know exactly what to teach in EAW.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

14. I am able to teach EAW confidently.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

15. EAW is relevant to the students' academic studies in their kulliyahs.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

16. EAW and academic studies in kulliyahs should be related.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

17. In the context of IIUM, EAW should be taught as one and the same course for all kulliyahs.

- | | | | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|
| Strongly
Disagree | Disagree | Undecided | Agree | Strongly
Agree |
| <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

18. Please give your reason(s) for your response to item no.17.

19. Please choose which statement represents your opinion on the current EAW:

- EAW is a 'general-academic-purposes' course that deals with the language and practices common to all students.
- EAW is a 'specific-academic-purposes' course that is concerned with the specific needs of students in a particular discipline.

Perceptions of EAW students

20. Generally students understand what EAW is all about.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Undecided
- Agree

- Strongly Agree

21. Students can apply their existing English language skills in EAW easily.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Undecided
- Agree

- Strongly Agree

22. EAW improves not just students' skills in academic writing, but also their English generally.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Undecided
- Agree

- Strongly Agree

23. Students can benefit from EAW in their studies in their respective kulliyahs.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

24. Students should be taught on how to write a research paper.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

25. Please give your reason(s) for your response to item no.24.

26. The most important current writing needs among my EAW students is to know (choose one):

- research writing skills (e.g. citation techniques, paraphrasing). basic
- language skills (e.g. grammar, structure).
- Other - Write In

27. Please give your reason(s) for your response to item no. 26.

28. As far as writing in this course is concerned, what matters most is that ultimately students are able to (choose one):

- apply research writing skills after their studies. write
- good research reports.
- have a higher level of proficiency.
- Other - Write In

29. Please give your reason(s) for your response to item no. 28.

30. Writing is the most important language skill for students in most kulliyahs.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

31. Academic writing is very important for students in most kulliyahs.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

32. Research writing is very important for students in most kulliyahs.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

33. It is important for students in most kulliyahs to know how to cite academic sources.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

34. It is important for students in most kulliyahs to be able to use appropriate language to review the literature.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

35. It is important for students in most kulliyahs to be able to apply appropriate language to write a research paper.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

36. It is important for students in most kulliyahs to be able to demonstrate appropriate language to write an academic piece of writing.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

37. It is important for students in most kulliyahs to be able to apply appropriate language to present research findings or academic paper.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

38. Below is a statement that best represents my understanding of academic writing (choose one):

- Academic writing is a formal form of writing.
- Academic writing is writing according to genres.
- Academic writing is research writing.
- Other - Write In

39. Please give your reason(s) for your response to item no.38.

40. Please rank the following language skills according to its importance for students in most kulliyahs by dragging and dropping the following items (first being the most important and last being the least important):

Drag items from the left-hand list into the right-hand list to order them.

Listening	→	
Speaking	→	
Reading	→	
Writing	→	

41. Please write your opinion/comments on EAW in the box below, if you have any.

Appendix E Faculty Lecturer Questionnaire

LECTURERS' PERCEPTIONS OF STUDENTS' ACADEMIC WRITING NEEDS**SCHOOL OF ENGLISH, THE UNIVERSITY OF SHEFFIELD, UK**

Dear respondent,

The purpose of this survey is to investigate the students' needs and perceptions of English for Academic Writing (EAW) at the International Islamic University Malaysia. Please complete the survey as truthfully as possible. There are only 26 questions in this survey which will only take about five to seven minutes to answer. Your responses will be strictly **CONFIDENTIAL** and used for the purpose of this research only. By taking part in this survey, you are giving your consent to the researcher to have access to your anonymised responses and use the data in future research. Your identity will not be linked with the research materials, and you will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that result from the research. Should you not wish to answer any particular question or questions, you are free to decline and withdraw from taking part in this survey.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Shahrul Nizam Mohd Basari
PhD candidate
The University of Sheffield, UK
Phone no: +447442982462
Email: snmohdbasari1@sheffield.ac.uk

Background information

1. Age:

- < 25 years old
- 34 years old
- 35 - 44 years old
- 45 - 54 years old
- > 54 years old

2. Gender:

- Male
- Female

3. Nationality:

- Malaysian
- Other (please state)

4. Ethnicity:

- Malay Chinese
- Indian
- Other (please state)

5. Kulliyah:

- AIKOL
- KOED/EDUCATION
- KENMS
- KAED
- KICT
- KOE/ENGINEERING
- KIRKHS
- KLM

6. Highest academic qualification:

- PhD
- Master's Degree
- Bachelor's Degree
- Other (please state)

7. Teaching experience (current kulliyah):

- More than 20 years
- 20 years
- 11 - 15 years
- 6 - 10 years
- Less than 6 years

Perceptions of academic writing

8. Below is a statement that best represents my understanding of academic writing (choose one):

- Academic writing is a formal form of writing.
- Academic writing is writing according to genres.
- Academic writing is research writing.
- Other - Write In

9. Please give your reason(s) for your response to item no.8.

10. Writing is the most important language skill for students of my kulliyah.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

11. Academic writing is very important for students in my kulliyah.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

12. Research writing is very important for students in my kulliyah.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

13. It is important for students in my kulliyah to know how to cite academic sources.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

14. It is important for students in my kulliyah to be able to use appropriate language to review the literature.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

15. It is important for students in my kulliyah to be able to apply appropriate language to write a research paper.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

16. It is important for students in my kulliyah to be able to demonstrate appropriate language to write an academic piece of writing.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

17. It is important for students in my kulliyah to be able to apply appropriate language to present research findings or academic paper.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

18. Undergraduate students in my kulliyah should be taught on how to write a research paper.

- Strongly Disagree Disagree Undecided Agree
- Strongly Agree

19. Please explain briefly on your response to item no.18.

20. The most important current writing needs among my students is (choose one):

research writing skills (e.g. citation techniques, paraphrasing). basic

language skills (e.g. grammar, structure).

Other - Write In

21. Please give your reason(s) for your response to item no.20.

22. As far as writing is concerned, what matters most is that ultimately my students are able to (choose one):

apply research writing skills after their studies. write

good research reports.

have a higher level of proficiency.

Other - Write In

23. Please give your reason(s) for your response to item no. 22.

24. Please rank the following language skills according to its importance for a student in your kulliyah by dragging and dropping the following items (first being the most important and last being the least important):

Drag items from the left-hand list into the right-hand list to order them.

Listening	→	
Speaking	→	
Reading	→	
Writing	→	

25. With regard to academic language performance, what do you expect your students to achieve? Please be as specific as possible.

26. In the list below, please click on the type/types of written works your students have to produce in the course that you teach. You may click on more than one type.

- Case study (e.g. company report, organization analysis, patient report)
- Critique (e.g. academic paper review, interpretation of results, legislation evaluation)
- Design specification (e.g. application design, product design, website design)
- Empathy writing (e.g. information leaflet, job application, news report)
- Essay (e.g. commentary, discussion, factorial)
- Exercise (e.g. data analysis, short answers, statistic exercise)
- Explanation (e.g. business explanation, methodology explanation, site/environment report)
- Literature survey (e.g. annotated bibliography, literature review, review article)
- Methodology recount (computer analysis report, field report, lab report)
- Narrative recount (e.g. accident report, biography, reflective recount)
- Problem question (e.g. business scenario, law problem question, logistics simulation)
- Proposal (e.g. business plan, legislation reform, research proposal)
- Research report (e.g. research article, student research project, topic-based dissertation)

Appendix F Student Interview Questions

Interview questions

a) Academic Writing

1. Thinking about listening, speaking, reading and writing in English, is there one type of skills that is more important than others to you in your study? If yes, which one, and why others are not so important?
2. How important are writing skills (English) in your study?
3. What do you think is the best way to learn to write effectively in your study?
4. What is your understanding of academic writing?

b) The EAW Course

5. What is your understanding of EAW?
6. What do you think you will achieve in EAW?
7. What do you think of having one EAW for all faculties?
8. Are you able to relate what you learn in EAW to what you need in your study?
Please explain your answer.
9. What do you think of the relevance of research writing skills in your study?

c) Stimulated Recall

10. Looking at your written works (and your lecturers' comments), can you please explain which area, in relation to academic writing, you need to improve to make it better?
11. So far, do you think you get to learn to improve this in EAW?
12. How would you suggest EAW to be, to improve your academic writing skills?
13. What is your opinion or comment on EAW?

- At the end of each interview, ask them:
 - if they have any problem to understand any question.
 - if there are questions that should be asked.

Appendix G EAW Lecturer Interview Questions

Interview questions

a) Background

1. May I know what your last academic qualification is?
2. How long have you taught EAW in CELPAD?
3. Have you got any training on teaching EAW? Could you briefly explain about the training?
4. Do you feel confident when you teach EAW? Why?
- 5.

b) Academic Writing and the EAW Course

6. What is your understanding of academic writing?
7. What is your understanding of the EAW course in CELPAD?
8. In terms of academic writing, what do you think your students will achieve in EAW?
9. Do you think EAW is relevant to academic writing? Why?
10. Do you think the research writing skills in EAW are relevant to academic writing needed by students in the kulliyahs (faculties)? Why?
11. Do you agree with having one and the same EAW course for all kulliyahs (faculties)? Why?

c) EAW as an EGAP or ESAP Course

12. Do you know about ESAP and EGAP? (If 'yes', what are they? If 'no', define to respondents)
13. In your opinion, is CELPAD's EAW an ESAP, or EGAP course? Why?
14. In your opinion, do you think EAW should be an ESAP or EGAP course? Why?

d) Stimulated Recall

15. Looking at your students' written works (and the lecturer's comments), can you please explain which area, in relation to academic writing, relate to the objectives and learning outcomes in the EAW Course Outline?
16. Generally, in terms of academic writing in EAW, what kind of problems do you see among your students?
17. Do you have any suggestions on EAW to improve your students' academic writing skills? Could you explain?

18. Finally, do you have any opinion or comment on EAW? Could you please explain?

Additional questions for EAW coordinator:

1. How long have you been the Coordinator of EAW in CELPAD?
 2. Have you got any trainings on EAW or EAP? Could you briefly explain about the trainings?
 3. Do you have any specific training on coordinating EAW? Could you briefly explain about it?
 4. Do you think EAW lecturers are well-trained to teach EAW? Why?
 5. Are there any training provided to EAW lecturers? Could you please explain about it?
 6. EAW is a course taught to students from all kulliyahs (faculties) in IIUM. Has there been any collaboration or any contact with any kulliyah regarding the course? Could you please explain about it?
 7. Finally, as a coordinator, what do you think about EAW?
- At the end of each interview, ask them:
 - if they have any problem to understand any question.
 - if there are questions that should be asked.

Appendix H Faculty Lecturer Interview Questions

Interview questions

a) **Background**

1. Can you tell me your last academic qualification please?
2. What is the course you are teaching now in your kulliyah?
3. How long have you taught your course in your kulliyah?
4. Could you please briefly explain about the course you are teaching?

b) Academic writing

5. Thinking about listening, speaking, reading and writing in English, is there a focus on any one of these more than others in the course you teach? If yes, which one, and why others are not so important?
6. Are writing skills important in the course you teach? Could you please explain a little bit more?
7. What is your understanding of academic writing?
8. What is your opinion on research writing and academic writing?
9. Do you think research writing should be taught to undergraduate students in your kulliyah?
10. Looking at the learning outcomes and objectives in the course outline, which part/parts, in your opinion, is/are related to academic writing?

c) Stimulated Recall

11. Looking at your students' written works (and the lecturer's comments), can you please explain which area, in relation to academic writing, the students need to improve to make it better?
12. Generally, what kind of problems do you see in your students' academic writing?
13. In your opinion, what do you think your students need in terms of academic writing?
14. Do you have any suggestion how your students can be taught to write effectively in the course you teach?
15. Finally, in general, what do you expect your students to be able to do in terms of academic language performance?

- At the end of each interview, ask them:
 - if they have any problem to understand any question.
 - if there are questions that should be asked.

Title: Assessing EAP Needs: A Comparative Genre-Based Study

Appendix I Consent Form

Consent Form for Interviews

Please Initial box:

I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet dated [dd/mm/yyyy] and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline.

I understand that my responses will be kept strictly confidential. I understand that my name will not be linked with the research materials, and will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that result from the research.

I agree for this interview to be tape-recorded. I understand that the audio recording made of this interview will be used only for analysis and that extracts from the interview, from which I would not be personally identified, may be used in any conference presentation, report or journal article developed as a result of the research. I understand that no other use will be made of the recording without my written permission, and that no one outside the research team will be allowed access to the original recording.

I agree that my anonymised data will be kept for future research purposes such as publications related to this study after the completion of the study.

I agree to take part in this interview.

Education students' and lecturers' perceptions of academic writing and see if there is any indication of writing practice in Laws and Education that corresponds with the type of writing expected of students in EAW.

Who will be participating?

The study involves undergraduate students and lecturers from eight faculties/centres (Architecture, Economics, Education, Engineering, Islamic Revealed Knowledge and Human Sciences, Information and Communication Technology, Laws and Centre for Languages and Pre-University Academic Development) at the International Islamic University Malaysia (IIUM).

What will you be asked to do?

The participants will be asked to complete questionnaires, involve in semi-structured interviews, and (for students) submit written assignments.

What are the potential risks of participating?

The participants may face a potential psychological distress in terms of having to spend time to answer questionnaires, involve in interviews and hand in written assignments, but this is believed to be at a minimum level as the instruments are designed to be clear and concise, and the subjects addressed are common to them.

What data will we collect?

The data will be obtained by collecting participants' responses in online questionnaires, conducting and recording participants' responses in semi-structured interviews, and collecting written assignments from students.

What will we do with the data?

The data will be analysed quantitatively and qualitatively and used for the purpose of the study only. Some parts of the data will be used in the written or oral presentation of the study, but the respondents' identity will be kept confidential at all times.

Will my participation be confidential?

The data will be anonymised and coded in the computer files with a random number. No identifying information will be retained.

What will happen to the results of the research project?

The results of this study will be included in my PhD's thesis, which will be publicly available at the University of Sheffield, and may be reported in journal papers and presented at conferences or seminars.

I confirm that I have read and understand the description of the research project, and that I have had an opportunity to ask questions about the project.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without any negative consequences.

I understand that I may decline to answer any particular question or questions, or to do any of the activities. If I stop participating at all time, all of my data will be purged.

I understand that my responses will be kept strictly confidential, that my name or identity will not be linked to any research materials, and that I will not be identified or identifiable in any report or reports that result from the research.

I give permission for the researcher to have access to my anonymised responses.

I give permission for the researcher to re-use my data for future research as specified above.

I agree to take part in the research project as described above.

Participant Name

Participant Signature

Shahrul Nizam Mohd Basari

Researcher Name

Researcher Signature

Date

Note: If you have any difficulties with, or wish to voice concern about, any aspect of your participation in this study, please contact Miss Emma Bradley, Research Ethics Administrator, School of English, The University of Sheffield (E.F.Bradley@sheffield.ac.uk) or to the University Registrar and Secretary.

The Generic Conspiracist Belief Scale 12

Milford (1983) where they found that females' scoring were significantly higher than male on conspiracy thinking (as cited in Darwin, Neave, & Holmes, 2011, p.1292). There were no clear explanations yet why female scored higher than male from various literatures in the past, but it may be related with how male and female perceive and interpret information that they received and how the difference between two genders process the information in the mind to become their set of belief.

Besides that, the current study also found several prominent factors that led the students to belief in conspiracy theory. In the first place, the factor was small group conspiracies which it tells that the belief on conspiracy theory exists because the students believed there is small and secret group of powerful people who are pulling the strings behind world events. To take into consideration, people nowadays always relate 'The Illuminati Conspiracy' with certain group known as 'Illuminati Society' where it was assumed that the society is the Jewish society (Makow, 2008).

Furthermore, to relate with the factor in the second place (informational control conspiracies), Makow (2008) again in his book, "*The Illuminati: The Cult That Hijacked the World*" gave facts that there are some small power groups which have hidden agendas in this world events trying to suppress the information from the public (p.11). They control all mechanisms that they have such as the government, secret societies, intelligence agency and importantly, the mass media. Therefore, based on the results and the literature, the current study found that these two might be the important interrelated factors that led the students to belief in conspiracy theory. With the small secret group that wants to bring and fulfill their hidden malicious agendas, it requires them to suppress and control certain information that they does not want public to know.

Introduction

Background of Study

Over the past few years, the term burnout is no longer an unfamiliar in various professions. Among them is the one who is working in human services, education and health care. One of the affected professions is teacher. In teaching profession, it requires an interaction between the teacher and its recipients: pupils or/and organization. From this interaction process, it is believed that burnout has come to existence and at the same time contributes greater impact towards both parties.

Nowadays, teaching is not solely about educating the students. The scope of teaching is much wider compared to before. For instance, back in the old days a teacher may only teaches the students. What is happening in today's scenario is a teacher is no longer focusing in teaching but to execute other responsibilities that are being put on his/her shoulder. Some of the examples of responsibilities are administrative works and career development pathways. According to Agbatogun (2010), teaching like other professions involves stress as an inevitable tool of challenges, flavour, and change which adds zest for living.

On the other hand, lecturers in higher learning institutions will pose another set of example in burnout issue. One might say that the burnout experienced by lecturers is more significant as compared to teachers in primary or secondary schools. This is because with loads of higher learning institutions that exist recently, it consequently causes competitions between the institutions. Not to forget, the competitions also come from the private higher learning institutions. Thus, lecturers are among the important party that plays a big role in ensuring the quality of education that the higher learning institutions could offer to its potential students in the university.

THE AWARENESS OF IIUM STUDENTS

8

Research design

→ The questionnaire was divided into four parts which aimed to achieve research objectives. The first part was demographic info which requires gender, kulliyah and level of studies of each participant. Next the second part of the questionnaire asked participants to identify the types of action that can be classified as an act of animal abuse. Both the second part and the third part of the questionnaire serves to answer the first research objective, to know if the participants are aware of animal abuse or not. Thus the third part of the questionnaire was about questions on the level of awareness and knowledge of participants on animal cruelty. Then the last part of questionnaire served to answer the second part of the research objective which was to know to what extent do the participants' concern on animal abuse issue. The answer required to be either in the form of choosing "yes" or "no", or to select on a scale from strongly disagree strongly agree, to what extent do they agree with the statements provided.

Data gathering technique and procedure

→ The survey was conducted using an online survey site in which the Google Document was properly utilized for the students' convenience in answering the questionnaire online. The link of the questionnaire was posted on social media so that the students could respond to that questionnaire quickly. The particular pages used were Facebook, Wassapp Application Group, and Twitter. This page manages to help the researches whereby those sites gather groups of IIUM students that come from different collie, study field, gender as well as year of studies. The first 30 participants of this survey were randomly chosen. The results of questionnaire were answered by IIUM students can be eventually seen in the email.

accordingly current density is :

$$J = \sigma (E + v \times B) + j^e \quad (17)$$

Where j^e is an externally generated current density. This implies that Maxwell's equations was written in the following manner :

$$\nabla \times H = J = \sigma (E + v \times B) + j^e \quad (18)$$

2.6 APPLICATION OF PERMANENT MAGNETS FOR CHATTER VIBRATION CONTROL IN END MILLING OF TITANIUM ALLOY

Chatter is an abnormal tool behavior which it is one of the most critical problems in machining process and must be avoided to improve the dimensional accuracy and → surface quality of the product. Wiercigroch M. and Budak states that mode of → coupling resulted from the vibration in the thrust force direction generate vibration → in the thrust and cutting force direction. Amin et al. and Anayet U Patwari et al. → found that the root cause of chatter lies in the coincidence of the frequency of instability of chip formation with one of the natural frequencies of the machine-spindle-tool system components during end milling machining operation. The chatter phenomenon actually can be suppressed by some of methods. A fuzzy logic approach for chatter suppression in end milling process is discussed by M.Liang, T.yeap and A.Hermansyah et al. Chatter is detected using the peak sound spectrum amplitudes at chatter frequency ranges. Yuan Ning et al indicates that chatter behaviour could be recognized by analysis of chips in high speed ball nose end milling of harden steel assab 8407 (AISI H13). In aaddition Deshpande and Fofana showed the

Please do
proper citation.

Origin	West Africa
Height increment	60-70 cm per year
Frond length	6-8m
Ripe fruit	Yellowish red
Nursery period	12-15 months
Age of harvesting	30 months after planting
No of bunches	8 - 12 bunches per year
Fruit per bunch	1,000-3,000 fruitlets
Bunch weight	20-30 kg
Fruitlet weight	10 g
Oil to bunch ratio	20-25%
Oil production	4-5 tonnes/ha/year

Table 2.1 Basic Facts Of Oil Palm

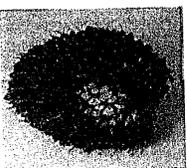
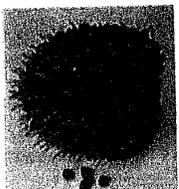
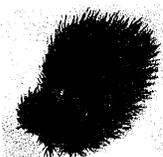
<p>Unripe</p> 	<p>FFB has purplish colour fruits and without detached fruitlets</p>	<p>Underripe</p> 	<p>FFB has reddish orange colour fruits and has less than 10 detached fruitlets.</p>
<p>Ripe</p> 	<p>FFB has reddish orange with at least 10 detached fruitlets and more than 50% of the fruits still attached to the bunch</p>	<p>Overripened</p> 	<p>FFB is darkish red colour with more than 50% of detached fruitlets but at least 10% of the fruits still attached to the bunch.</p>

Table 2.2 MPOB Grading Standard

(reference?)

1.0 Introduction

Language acquisition is a process in which human acquire the capacity to perceive and comprehend language and to construct words and sentences to communicate. Maslow (2007) argues that language acquisition is based on the “neuro-psychological processes” is also opposed to learning and is a subconscious process similar to that which children acquire their first language (Kramina, 2000). Language acquisition is very similar to the process of children in acquiring first and second language. Apart from that, according to Robbins (2007), language acquisition is “an integral part of the unity of all language”. The differences in language background of parents will influence their children in acquiring language and it depends on how their parents transmit their language to their children.

In addition, Harrison & Piette (1980) mentioned the way bilingual children become bilingual also depend on the language of the community where they live, cultural and societal norms. Suryanathi (2013) argues that there are two kinds of option related to the parents’ bilingual children transmitting their language to children, the first type is to transmit one language and then transmit the other language and the second one is to transmit both of their languages to the children from birth. Moreover, Maretzki (1977) defines mixed marriages as marriages between partners of different cultural and language background who may have different beliefs, customs and norms.

In light of all these aspects, it can affect their children in a positive and negative way. The children acquisition of language will be improved if they use both languages but if one of the languages is neglected, then it will form negative bilingualism (David, 2003). Rubin (2003) also argues that parents and children’s attitude can affect the language transmission to the next generations. Women plays an important role in language shifting because women play the role of housewife and mother, hence it is predicted that a child will be fluent in her mother’s language for this reason. Thus, the choice of language used among their children is influenced by the mother’s role than their fathers.

Date: 17 April 2015

Length: 16 minutes 46 seconds

I: Ok. What is the course you are doing now at KIRKHS? (Ah sorry... Engineering).

Raf: (I'm in Engineering). Engineering, Electronic Computer and IT.

I: Ok. Which year are you in now?

Raf: Fourth year.

I: Fourth year. Ok erm... in your study, thinking about the four skills in English - listening, speaking, reading and writing - is there one type of skills that is more important than others to you?

Raf: [Pause].

I: Erm... if we look at the four skills - reading, writing, listening and speaking - is there one of these skills that is more important to you in your study?

Raf: in my study?

I: Yes.

Raf: It would be... probably writing.

I: Writing? Ok. Why?

Raf: Because I need to do my final year project and I have to write a report about it.

I: Ok. So, in your study, final year project is a course or...

Raf: It's a course.

I: Where you have to do a lot of writing?

Raf: I have to, yea.

I: Ok. Is there any other... projects, assignments or courses where it requires you to do...

Raf: Yes. Seminar, IDP. Most of the projects that we do, we have to do a report about it. So basically, there's a lot of project, and there's a lot of lab report that you have to write.

I: Ok. So, IDP stands for?

Raf: Err... Integrated Design Project.

I: And FYP is?

Raf: Final Year Project.

I: Ok now, what about other skills... err why they are not so important as compared to writing?

Raf: Because engineers... for listening... they need it, to understand the course in class. For speaking... we don't talk a lot, because we solve problems most of the time in class. We calculate, we do something else, not speaking. And what... reading. Reading... yea, it's important to read the slides and to understand the books and articles.

I: Ok. But maybe not as important as writing?

Raf: Yea.

I: Ok. Ok so for now do you have any problems with your writing in your course when you do those, you know, projects, when you take those courses in the kulliyah?

Raf: Probably on the format and citation...

I: Citation techniques?

Raf: Techniques yea.

I: Ok. So it's the format, the technical aspects of it?

Raf: Yea.

I: What about the writing itself, the language...

Raf: The language... I think I'm ok with it.

I: Ok good. Erm... what have you done to overcome the problems that you mentioned just now in writing?

Raf: I look into past reports of my seniors, and look how they do it. Like the techniques they use... so I just...do.

I: Erm... so those are the ways you have taken to overcome the problems. Any way that you can think of that can also help to solve the problem that maybe you have not done but you think it's good to do?

Raf: Asking my lecturer about it.

I: Ok. All right. Ok erm... now, what is your understanding of academic writing?

Raf: My understanding?

I: Yea, your own understanding. Your own opinion. When you say academic writing...

Raf: Write about paper, academic paper, any reports, journals, articles... related to academics.

I: So it is a kind of writing... which what... which is used for writing specific formats, you mean? When you say reports... is that what you mean? It's the kind of writing that requires specific formats?

Raf: Yea.

I: Ok. Are you taking EAW at the moment?

Raf: Yea.

I: Yes. Err... now, what is your understanding of EAW?

Raf: Understanding?

I: I mean, if I were to ask you to describe what EAW is, how would you describe EAW?

Raf: It's a course that teaches the students how to write a research paper. But for some other kulliyah, not Engineering [laughed].

I: Ok. Ok. But... but err... when you take the course, I mean, since you are taking it now, you're still required to write a research paper, right?

Raf: Yea. And I'm required to learn new things, which is not related to my kulliyah. and it's kind of... not...

I: Ok, ok. Err... at the moment, you mentioned that, it's not related to what you are doing... in EAW, it's not related to your kulliyah but is there any areas where it helps you to overcome your problems that you mentioned just now, when you do your projects in the course?

Raf: Yea.

I: Can you give some examples, maybe, how it helps you to overcome your problems?

Raf: The formatting is kind of different, but for some students, they can manage to relate. But for the degree level, you know, in the degree level you want to see something that you can relate directly. But when I take that course, I can... I can relate but I need to tweak it a little bit. It is kind of helpful, but not so much. I can't describe.

I: Ok. Erm... ok, can give me your... your opinion, you know, what do you think about the research writing skills in EAW? And maybe, you know you have mentioned that it's not related to the course you are taking, but can you... let's talk a bit more on that, you know. Because since you said it's not related, so... maybe just compare a bit the research that you do for your subjects and courses and the research that you do for EAW.

Raf: I was... struggling with my research paper in EAW. Because the format is different. So what I did, I took the past report samples that my lecturer from EAW gave, and then I follow the techniques that the past seniors did. I follow exactly. I didn't copy any word. I do my own work but I follow the techniques, the structure. And then, when I submit it, he was like... he called me... didn't return my paper. He called me after the class, he said like, 'it was too good. I didn't find any mistake. It is a miracle. It is PhD level' bla bla bla. So I was like, ok, is it a compliment or anything. I was thinking, why he looked mad. Suddenly he said I need to change my topic. Because he didn't believe I did that. And he want me to redo it. And he want me to degrade the level. He said 'make it look more like a degree level'. So, first thing, I don't know how to do. So i need, I need a good sample. So what I did, I took a sample from the course, and then I follow how they did. I don't know how to do it. But, I follow the structure. So, I was like, I don't know how to do, so I follow good example, and then I got problem from it. So, it's kind of annoying. Because he didn't really teach us how to do it. He teach but, I don't know. When I did, he said many things.

I: So when... the kind of research, the kind of format that you have to do in EAW, errr... is errr... what... it is a primary research, right? Where it requires you to conduct survey, and produce a quantitative research, right?

Raf: For Engineering we don't have that. We don't do survey.

I: So, when your lecturer in EAW teaches you this, errr... is the focus more on that technical aspect of it - formatting, structure, the methods - or, on the language itself? Academic writing. How to write the language to use. How to summarise, how to synthesise, how to paraphrase, for examples.

Raf: As far as I'm concerned, he didn't teach us on how to summarise. He said we have to, like make it, you know, the short is better. But I didn't think he teach us how to do it. I think it's more to the technical aspect like, how to start the literature review, there's a key word, like you have to use that key word. He teaches the... like how to... the technical part I think.

I: Ok. Now, coming back to the kind of research that you do in your course in the kulliyah. Can you explain a bit about it? What kind of research, what you have to do there?

Raf: In our research, we have to... do a research on our project. For example, like... like... we don't do much on the people. We don't do... we don't do the survey thing.

I: You don't approach people.

Raf: Yea, we don't approach people. We do research for our topics only. For example my topic, Autonomous Control for Tri-rotor UAV. So I need to do research on that thing. So it could help me on my project, to do my project. Basically I'm doing my project and I'm doing the research, the literature review and everything, to help me to do the project.

I: So, you have to what? Conduct an experiment?

Raf: Yea. I need to test my project.

I: Test the project. And then, you will write a report...

Raf: About it.

I: About it. Ok. Erm... now, is there any, you know, parts in the course, in your kulliyah, where the lecturers have to teach you the language bit? Academic writing.

Raf: No.

I: No? Not even summarising, paraphrasing...

Raf: Not really.

I: No, not really. So it's just purely... what you have to do for the project. So in terms of academic writing, language, you have to, you know, cope with it if you have problems...

Raf: I have to struggle with it alone.

I: Ok. Now, since you have your assignments with you...

Raf: This is my FYP project. This is Chapter one.

I: Ah ha... maybe you have describe to me just now what you have to do. So maybe you can just show me a little bit more what you have to do and if you can, show the kind of writing that you find need, you know, a bit difficult for you to do? If there is any.

Raf: Difficult for me?

I: Yea. The kind of writing. Maybe, for example, erm... ok, does it have... what? Literature Review, for example?

Raf: Err... I haven't... I just did a summary on it. I haven't started the paragraphing yet. I just do the summary.

I: So meaning you have read a few articles, and you have to summarise it. Ok. Do you have any problems with it? When you do that?

Raf: Yea.

I: When you have to summarise, do you have any problems to summarise?

Raf: Yea.

I: Yes?

Raf: That's my main problem.

I: So that was what... I was trying to... to get just now. So, that is one problem that you find when you do your assignments, to summarise.

Raf: Yea.

I: Is there any kind of other problems?

Raf: Not really. Basically I think the Literature Review part.

I: So, you do not really struggle with basic proficiency in terms of grammar, you know, basic language skills.

Raf: Not really.

I: Not really. Erm... ok. What do you think of having one and the same EAW for all kulliyahs? Because at the moment, you only have... I mean CELPAD is offering one same, you know, the same EAW...

Raf: Oh... the same?

I: It is the same for students from Engineering, from HS, you know, from all kulliyahs. So, what do you think about it?

Raf: It's not good. It's not appropriate and it's like... it's not good especially for the people who don't... who cannot relate to their kulliyah. I thought it was different.

I: So you were thinking for Engineering you have... EAW for Engineering.

Raf: Yea, when we want to register for the course, like I have to register one class they said this class is only for HS and Economics. So I have to take another section. So I took that section, ok for Engineering. So I thought like, it was different but oh it was the same.

I: So, maybe when it says Engineering, it is meant for you to be in the same class with all other Engineering students.

Raf: Yea but in the Engineering there are some Law students... it's like a group of kulliyah there, but not all.

I: Ok... ok. So the majority of them are from Engineering?

Raf: Ah my course from Engineering.

I: Ok. Erm... ok, do you have any suggestion on EAW to improve your writing skills?

Raf: Improve my writing skills?

I: Yea. Maybe in terms of... because you mentioned specifically summarising skills. So, do you have any suggestions on EAW if, you know, I mean, how it can help you.

Raf: First thing, I think they should separate, for Engineering and other kulliyahs. And they have to err... they have to revise the syllabus on Engineering. And then they have to add one course on summarising too.

I: Ok. Any other... finally, any other opinion or comment? You have mentioned a bit about your opinion and comment but just to sum up. This is my last question... anything that you want... maybe you hope to... EAW to be... your comments...

Raf: I hope EAW... to be erm... to be more understanding. Because, about the first one I have to redo it. I have to redo because my lecturer couldn't accept it for the fact that it was too good. And err... yea it was too good because I follow the structure of the past sample that he gave. So, like, don't give the sample if you don't want people to take example from it. I didn't copy any word. I just follow the structure and it was too good. And I have to redo it.

I: But do you think the students in your kulliyah need, you know, this kind of course to help with the writing?

Raf: We do. I have high expectation when I took English. Many of my friends told me that it's not related but I didn't think about that. I really want to take it because I really need help on my writing. So like, when I took it, my expectation, like, it was not fulfilled. I was disappointed.

I: So, in summary, you think this kind of course is needed by students in the (kulliyah...)

Raf: It is needed, (but they need to revise the syllabus for Engineering).

I: They need to revise it to suit the Engineering students.

Raf: Yea.

I: Ok so, that is all. Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.

Appendix R Interview Transcript: Faculty Lecturer

TRANSCRIPT OF INTERVIEW WITH LECTURER 4 (HS)

LHS4

Date: 13 July 2015

Length: 24 minutes 11 seconds

I: Can you tell me your last academic qualification please?

NA: Okay. Err....my...I have a degree in Environmental Anthropology, from University of Western Australia, PhD.

I: Okay. What..

NA: 2011

I: What is the course you are or what are the courses you are teaching now in the kulliyah?

NA: This semester I teach Research Methodology 1, SOCCA 2999, Research Methodology 2, SOCCA 3999, and then one PG course, also in research method, SOCCA 6090.

I: And SOCCA stands for?

NA: Sociology.

I: Sociology? Okay. Erm...how long have you taught those courses here?

NA: Research Method....I've been teaching these courses...both RM1 and RM2 for the past thirteen years lah...minus...my PhD years lah.

I: Emm..hmm. So, that's for Research Method?

NA: Yea.

I: Emm..hmm

NA: 2001. Since 2001.

I: 2001. Since 2001.

NA: Em. So every semester.

I: Every semester that you have been teaching Research Methodology?

NA: Yea.

I: But for (SOCCA)..

NA: For master..this...last semester is the first time.

I: Emm..hmm. So Research Method for PG you mean?

NA: Yea.

I: Emm..hmm. Okay erm...

NA: Other courses, Introduction to Sociology, Introduction to Social Work, Youth and Society, Environment and Society, yeah, (that's about it).

I: (Okay). Erm..okay, let's focus on Research Methodology, generally, okay?

NA: Okay.

I: Err...could you please briefly explain about, about the course?

NA: Err....for our department, Department of Sociology, we divided the course into two - Research Method 1, SOCCA 2999, this is basically to introduce all the basic concept, okay, like hypotheses, theory, independent variable, dependent variable, qualitative research....basic concept, and the most important part of the course is to introduce all the seven major step, from formulation of erm...RP, formulation of hypotheses, different data collection technique, how to write research proposal...so basically, it's just the foundation course for...how to do empirical research.

I: Okay. All right.

NA: For RM2 there is the practical part of the course. For RM1, we ask the most important assessment is to write research proposal. So that carries twenty percent.

I: So, that would be the final product?

NA: Yea.

I: Of the course?

NA: Hmm.

I: Okay. Research proposal?

NA: Of course. Plus mid-term and final, but the most important is the RP lah, research proposal. For RM2, Research Method 2, for our department, we....I divided the course into two: quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative err..basically...you brought them to computer lab, ask them to run SPSS, do analysis, and write report, okay. But not a whole report, just exercise by exercise...about six to seven exercises per semester. But for a complete research report is, they have to do qualitative research. That one they have to collect the data, do either participant observation or field interview, write the whole report from introduction, research problem until conclusion, findings and so on.

I: Okay. Erm now, what is your understanding of academic writing?

NA: Academic writing err for me....err it comprises of all type of academic writing which include argumentative essay, plus research proposal, okay, how to construct a good err...thesis statement, a good paragraph which make up the body of the essay, with all the important part, introduction, conclusion, supportive argument and so on. So for me, that's what....and plus all those technical details, how to do citation, paraphrasing....okay. And so on.

I: Erm....now, what is your opinion on research writing and academic writing, specifically?

NA: Err..it's...actually I think for me, personally, it can be overlapping in some areas. For me academic writing is very general, okay. Academic writing is very general as I mentioned just now, it could be argumentative essay, in which you don't have to collect empirical research. But for research writing, err...of course some might argue research writing can be purely based on library, but of course for us, for human sciences, we go for empirical research, so, even though you are writing errm....a research report, definitely there is a major component of academic writing especially on the literature review section, where you do a lot of paraphrasing which is similar to academic writing, in most cases.

I: Okay. Generally academic writing and research writing are highly related.

NA: Emm.

I: Okay. But it's just that, there's more to academic writing, not just....like, like you said, there is argumentative essay...

NA: Yea.

I: Okay. All right. Err do you think research writing should be taught to undergraduate students in your kulliyah?

NA: Oh that one, definitely, because we are asking them to conduct research, empirical research. So, it goes without saying that when you talk about research, the final product is you have to report your research, and most of the time, how to report your research, we do it in writing. So, like it or not, all student, okay, I believe not only for our kulliyah but across...all other kulliyah, it should be a very important component.

I: Okay. So when you teach research writing to your students, I mean undergraduate students, erm...can you generally explain the...the needs in terms of academic writing...their needs in terms of academic writing?

NA: Their needs?

I: Yea. When they...because they have to...to learn research writing. They have to do a research, right?

NA: Yea.

I: For the course...research...Research Methodology, so how do you describe their needs, what they need to know, what they need to use when they write..write a research erm...paper?

NA: Okay. Err first of all, of course you know, they have to write a good research proposal or final research report...you need to know all the basic research step, because you are guided specifically by all the steps.

I: Emm..hmm...hmm

NA: Okay. But, in the process of writing itself of course they should know, as I mentioned earlier, the basic for general academic writing...

I: Emm..hmm

NA: ...which is, you should know how to construct a paragraph, say for example, and within paragraph, as I mentioned just now, you should have a topic sentence. So things like that, which are fundamental for any kind of academic writing, should be there when they do their final research report, or writing their research proposal. So those basic essay writing element should be...this student should be able to translate that into their research report. In every paragraph, you should have topic sentence and all paragraph should err...should be able to be link coherently, okay. So there are, I mean, I think there are two important issues here: first is their technical ability; second is their cognitive ability. To link paragraph to the other paragraph is not merely technical writing ability, or skill, okay, in which that...that is another major problem. I mentioned to you just now, thesis statement, problem, and then technical details and thirdly, how to link paragraph using conjunction, words and so on, also are not there, actually visible in this...among this student. They don't know how to use the correct conjunction word - in addition, nevertheless....and they don't know how to link paragraph to paragraph, not only using your ideas, the ideas should be connected coherently, but also you should also this...

I: Sequence connectors?

NA: Yea.

I: Emm...okay. Erm...if we were to look at the course objectives and learning outcomes, is there any specific erm...err...item that highlights what you have mentioned just now, maybe something that (you can relate to the ability...)

NA: (That one err...more on err...) RM2. Their writing skills and skill...I mean your research skills, that one is (research skill)...

I: (Research skills?) So, course objective 2 yea [pointing at the course objective in the course outline]? 'To provide students with...'

NA: The writing part err...explicitly being mentioned in RM2.

I: Emm..hmm...RM2 is....oh okay, the other course outline...all right. Erm...okay now, coming back to the students' needs and of course the problems err that they err...do, can you just maybe highlight some examples from your students' work here [pointing at the students' assignments]?

NA: Emm..hmm...as I mentioned just now, err...those who want to write a research report, they should have those basic err...skill in how to write academic...like, say for example, argumentative essay. So, as I mentioned just now, you should have a thesis statement. [looking at one of the students' assignments] Okay.This one is actually with a good thesis statement. But as I mentioned to you err...earlier, this student, okay, showed me her first draft, which was without thesis statement. So then, emm...because there was still time before the date of submission, so if you want, I say, I can accept this, otherwise, if you want better mark, I give you the opportunity to improve, but you need to include your thesis statement.

I: Sorry, can I just put an asterisk here [pointing at the example] (using pen).

NA: (Ah yea). Otherwise, those who didn't consult me, okay, they simply submitted to me the final product, okay. So this is one without thesis statement [pointing at another student's assignment]. So this is...some of...major issues, major problems that need to be addressed by this student.

I: So this is a rampant thing that has been (going on) every semester, maybe?

NA: (Yea, yea). This is common.

I: Common. Emm..hmm

NA: Thesis statement. This one. Another one as I mentioned earlier the technical..things. This one *memang* [translated - surely] every single semester...quotation, page number..err..this one is very common. So there is the second issues..[still flipping through the student's assignment] how to cite references...

I: Okay what about the language itself?

NA: Ah the language *memanglah* [translated - surely], that is another problem *lah*. [laugh]

I: Ah..ha

NA: Some of this student, I don't know, as if they were in primary school [laugh].

I: Problems in terms of language you mean?

NA: Yea.

I: Yea. Emm..hmm.

NA: Erm....I think, I still can tolerate past time, sorry, tenses....still I can tolerate *lah*...but, some..some of them, really, it didn't make sense...I don't know...hold on yea [still flipping through the student's assignment].

I: Oh, you are referring to grammar?

NA: Ah.

I: Their grammar in writing. Okay.

NA: Wrong...wrong choice of word, no verb, verb to be and so on...

I: Subject-verb agreement?

NA: Subject-verb agreement, tenses *tu I kira macam minor jugak la* [translated - the tenses I considered as quite minor mistakes]. *Sampai* [to the extent] we couldn't make sense of the sentence and all.

I: Okay. What about language skills in terms of summarising, synthesising, (paraphrasing)...

NA: (Ah that one's)...among the weakest *lah*.

I: That is also a (problem err)...

NA: (That was very) evident in research proposal *lah yang I bagitau you tadi kan* [translated - that I told you earlier]. The whole paragraph, no introduction, no whatsoever, just straight away copy and paste, yeah we cannot accuse plagiarism because they put inverted comma but the whole paragraph, no nothing, no introduction...up to ten to fifteen lines...I think...direct quote.

I: So, they have problems in summarising, (paraphrasing...synthesising)...

NA: (Yea, yea, synthesising, paraphrasing...) that is major issues.

I: Also another major issue?

NA: Yea.

I: Ah ha..

NA: Especially when they...*dia punya* [translated - their] second section *lah*, literature review section. *Selalunya memang* [translated - usually that is the case]. So, usually literature review section, there is the two most common: first *dia punya* [translated - its] technical error...this one, no page number [pointing at one example in the student's assignment]; second, they don't know...they didn't know how to synthesise. Again, as I mentioned earlier, this is not only, purely language or writing skills. *Dia punya* [translated - their] cognitive ability how to synthesise...I mean, researcher A *kata apa* [translated - says what], researcher B, C, D, E...not following any themes, just report..F,G...yea...author A [still showing at the student's assignment].

I: And it comes from their reading skills as well, actually....what...what they understand, and how they transfer it into their writing.

NA: Yea.

I: Okay. Are you familiar with EAW?

NA: English for Academic?

I: Writing.

NA: Writing. Ah.

I: Are you familiar with the course?

NA: No.

I: Not really yea?

NA: I mean I...I mean I don't know what, what is the course content but I just aware, my...my knowledge is just that I...I'm aware that it is a compulsory course for UG student. And from my experiences, begin with my student normally, they will register themselves very...I mean..towards the end of their...semester..(ah third year, final year)..

I: (Their third year or fourth year)...

NA:...which..I think ideally they should take it first year, first semester. At least second semester the latest so that, that kind of skill, knowledge, information can be used throughout their studies.

I: Em..hmm...hmm....okay so..

NA: Should be first year, first semester.

I: So, basically you know that the course teaches students how to err write a research?

NA: Yea. I know that err...some of my student show me their assignment...assessment.

I: And they think it should be taught earlier?

NA: Not the research component part but the writing part.

I: The writing part? Emm...hmm....hmm

NA: Minus the research component part except the literature review section, in which you are going to teach them how to synthesise, paraphrase and so on.

I: So, by writing part, you are referring to that needs, to the problems that you described just now.

NA: Yea.

I: The conventions, and then the skills to paraphrase, synthesise, summarise.

NA: Yes.

I: Okay. All right. Erm...do you have other...other suggestions on how students can be taught to write effectively in the course you teach?

NA: My course?

I: Yea.

NA: Err....okay. Frankly speaking, I have not addressed the writing part, specifically, because this is research method part. So normally I just...err.assist them in terms of technical things rather than the writing process itself. Like we spent for RM1, since one of the major component of the assessment is writing research proposal, so at least two lecture I will guide them how to write a good research proposal. So that, that is the best thing that I can do within the limited period of time whatsoever. So I will teach them what are the component should be there in a good research proposal. You should have your RP, your hypothesis, if you are doing quantitative, you need to have operational definition and whatsoever, but the nitty gritty little things about how to write, your grammar and so on, and that would be also when I teach literature review, I will show example of a good literature review, okay. How...not really how, but I will show, so this is source 1...source B....how to synthesise to become literature review. (But that one)...

I: (Erm...so that they can see..)

NA: Yea. But I couldn't spend more than one lecture.

I: Okay. So, when you do that, the students can see the (examples) of how to use language (would be), how to introduce, you know....

NA: (Yea). (Yes). Yea. I will show them the example, okay. Then I will show also, how to do...how to cite, in-text citation, references...so, I will give them example. But I don't really have much time to really spend four or five weeks just to do, because I assume should have been exposed to this, this is just a revision. Normally I will say to them, 'okay you have seen this before, this is APA, but if you are Sociology you can use ASR, or even you can use Harvard style'. We show slide and so on, 'okay, so this is example of in-text citation, this is references,' so that is the technical part.

I: So the students are not just exposed to the technical part, I mean the techniques, but also the language to do it, to use it....let say, the words to use when you introduce a...a citation maybe.

NA: Yes...yes...yea...yea..

I: Okay. So...

NA: 'According to...'

I: Yes that kind of thing. So the students are also err...made aware of that.

NA: Yes. Yes.

I: Erm...is there any allocation of marks for language in the (rubric) for the assessment (of your course).

NA: (Yea). (But not many *lah*).

I: There is? Ah..ha

NA: All...all...except for...not on me....[looking for rubric]. RP, Environment, *semua ada* [translated - all do have].

I: Generally, do you remember the percentage, maybe, if you do not for sure?

NA: Around...normally 2 out of 20.

I: 2 out of 20?

NA: 2 to 3 *lah*.

I: 2 to 3 marks out of twenty? And you..

NA: For language per say *lah*, and then format separately *letak kadang* [translated - sometimes put].

I: Yea..that's..that's language per say.

NA: Language...format err..

I: So, language here refers to grammar?

NA: Emm..emm

I: So, generally, what..what do you give to the students?

NA: Oh *selalu kadang-kadang setengah* [translated - usually sometimes half]

I: Half? [laugh]

NA: {laugh} Most *satu. Jarang dapat...*very rarely *dapat* full marks, or 1.5...2.5, usually 0.5, or 1. Normally 1, *itu pun markah kesian. Kalau nak ikut yang keras ni nak bagi 0 je. Kesian, bagi la jugak 1.* [Translated - Mostly 1. They rarely get full marks, or 1.5 and 2.5, usually 0.5 or 1. Normally 1, but even that is just out of courtesy. If I were to follow my heart, I would just give 0. I pity them, hence the 1 mark.]

I: So, the average is 1? Generally 1?

NA: Ah 1...yes.

I: Okay. All right. Erm...finally, in general, what do you expect your students to be able to do in terms of academic language performance, just to wrap up whatever that you have described just now?

NA: Actually, I don't expect them to use...those bombastic words, difficult words, it's just...I think very minimum requirement. Simple language...but you have all the components.

I: Okay.

NA: Subject, predicate, agreement...*kadang-kadang ada subject dia takde predicate..kan* [translated - sometimes the subject does not have the predicate]. So, those simple things. And then you should have a sub-research area, thesis statement, thesis sentence, topic sentence, structure, okay. Should have introduction, conclusion, those basic components of a good essay. Just follow the citation...err...those technical things. I mean, it irritates me. As simple as that, okay. Language part, maybe *lah, susah sikit* [translated - a bit difficult]. But, technical part, you just simply...I ask them 'download and refer...make sure you *ada* Harvard style, whatever style beside you and you write'. So, as simple as that. Even that they cannot follow. So that one is very irritating mistake, error.

I: Is..is there a standard for the style that students are required to use in this kulliyah?

NA: No.

I: No. Okay. So, there are (free to use...)

NA: (Usually, Psychology) APA lah. And normally Sociology *pun banyak guna APA* [translated - mainly uses APA]. APA *ni macam quite standard jugak la across all human sciences.* [translated - APA is quite the standard practice across human sciences].

I: But, they are not really expected to only use APA?

NA: Yea, I give them freedom, okay. 'If you don't like APA, then you go and use ASR or Harvard. As long as you follow the format. *Masalahnya* [translated - the problem is], neither. Any of the format they didn't follow. Author *takde*, publication year *takde*, *all format ada author and publication year, you jangan nak tipu I. Kalau dia nak kata format ni takde, mana ada. All format akan ada year and author.* [translated - No author, no publication year. All formats have author and publication year, do not cheat me on this. If they say there is a format that does not have this, that is wrong. All formats will have year and author].

I: All styles would have them, yea.

NA: As basic as that, they can't follow. It really irritates us.

I: Okay. So, if..because this course is...is...is taught by...by a language centre here, right? So, in a way you are also hoping or expecting that maybe some of the (issues can be addressed...)

NA: (Ah yea. Awareness....maybe like...because, usually my style, I will try to relate, okay, Sociology course *dengan* [translated - with] other Sociological courses or sometimes even in Psychology, you know. So, I think every lecturer should also address the same things. I mean, in passing, just *cakap* [translated - say]: 'please, okay, today's lecture is very important because you're going to use that in your kulliyah later on', so that they....those things stick in their mind - okay, this is very useful. So, before...in the middle of the lecture or even in the beginning, and reiterated at the end, 'okay, you should use this, keep this lecture, okay. When you want to write essay in your department, research proposal, you are going to use exactly the same thing'. So usually *memang akan buat camtu - how to relate RM dengan other courses - Sociology courses dengan other Human Sciences courses and IRK courses. So I rasa yang tu kena ada kot, so that they are aware, okay.* [translated - So usually that is done - how to relate RM with other courses, Sociology courses with other Human Sciences courses and IRK courses. So I think that has to be done, so that they are aware, okay.]

I: Okay. Anything else you would like to add? Maybe any comment, suggestions?

NA: Err...suggestions *yang tu lah* [translated - is that one]. Please omit research component, except literature review.

I: Okay. All right. So that's for the language centre you mean?

NA: Erm.

I: Ah ha. Okay. All right.

NA: So, I hope erm..other...outcome of your thesis, in the future, strengthen *dia punya* [translated - their] essay, argumentative essay ability, so that, *kitorang kat sini akan tengok dia punya* [translated - we over here will look at their], be able to concentrate on their research only. Because, because the thing is, err...it really disrupt..err...our process of marking...their assignment. *Dia punya language, sampai tak boleh nak faham apa dia baca, tu memang teruk...choice of word, vocab dia lah...vocab dia...*[their language, to the extent that I could not understand what they read...really terrible...choice and word and vocabulary]

I: Okay. So I guess that would be all. If there's nothing more to add, you know, on top of what you have...you have made all the major points there. Okay, thank you.

Appendix S Interview Transcript: EAW Lecturer

TRANSCRIPT OF INTERVIEW WITH LECTURER 9 (CELPAD)

LEAW9

Date: 08 April 2015

Length: 15 minutes 08 seconds

I: Ok. Can you tell me your last academic qualification, please?

NH: It is a TESL degree.

I: Ok. It's a bachelor's degree yea?

NH: Yea. It was a bachelor degree in TESL.

I: Ok. How long have you taught EAW in CELPAD?

NH: Let me see. I started in roughly, around 2011 until now, which is like 2015... so that's about 4 years.

I: Four years. Ok. Have you got any training on teaching EAW?

NH: Training conducted by CELPAD, yes. But training conducted by professional people, teaching EAW specifically, no.

I: How frequent were they? The trainings provided by CELPAD.

NH: When we first started EAW, it was quite frequent. But has it got into the second year until now, it is not that frequent. Because basically, erm... we kind of like, after one year, we kind of like know what we are doing.

I: Ok. So when you said first year, was it 2011?

NH: Yes. The year 2011.

I: The first year you started?

NH: Yup.

I: Do you feel confident when you teach EAW?

NH: Not exactly. [giggled]

I: Why?

NH: Err... because the format kept changing, alright. Err... we started with EAW in a different way, err it was like we used both methods, which was we can do either qualitative or quantitative. But after a few... sorry after about 2 years, 2 years later I think in 20... at the end of 2013, we started going into just quantitative. Err so it is more focused. So that's why there was a change in everything.

I: Ok. Do you find teaching EAW easy?

NH: No. No. [giggled].

I: Why?

NH: Because of the... because of... how do I say this. Err... basically, when we teach students, yes, they do have a little bit of err exposure to what is err you know, what is EAW. It's just that, when they have to come up with a specific thing like, err like what we are doing now, quantitative, descriptive, they have a bit of a problem in identifying certain parts of the research paper. And then, of course, the difference in the kulliyah. In our... in CELPAD, we use APA format. But in other kulliyah, like erm.. I think if I'm not mistaken, err is it the kulliyah of Economics? They don't use APA. They use a different type or format. So, it's entirely different. And when it comes to AIKOL, it's gonna be a big different where they love footnotes. Well, we do not have footnotes in our research paper. So the... there will be things like that. And it is like more specific in EAW, like in a thesis, basically, it's either qualitative or quantitative. But EAW is definitely very specific, it's quantitative descriptive. So, it's kind of difficult to... to... how do I say this, it's kind of difficult to ask the students to come up with numerical info at the end of the introduction part.

I: Ok. Is there any specific kulliyah that you find it easier to teach than others?

NH: Let me see, err AIKOL. [giggled]

I: AIKOL.

NH: Even though there's a little bit of... there is a difference like they love footnotes, but they can understand. Because basically, err their format and the format CELPAD is using is quite similar. And also HS. HS. Yes.

I: What about err... other kulliyah...

NH: Ok. Ok. The other kulliyah... the difficult... the difficult ones would be from the kulliyah of ICT, Engineering and Architecture. Because they don't have... they don't exactly do a thesis. They actually have a project paper and it's more towards drawings and stuff. It's a project paper, so it's a different format from APA. So, I had difficulty with the students from those kulliyah.

I: Ok. What is your understanding of academic writing?

NH: Ermm... ok. Well, for me, academic writing is basically an opinion essay with references included in it. That's it. It's not like what we are teaching the students is actually... it's... it's like... Ok, for me, when you talk about academic writing, it will have to be on your opinion on a certain topic. Alright. But you have references. Meaning that you have to either quote or summarise from other authors. Just to support your own idea. That's it. But, what we are doing, sorry to say this, it's more towards like a thesis, which I don't really think the students need because they are already taught in the kulliyah, the format of a thesis. And since we... they come from different kulliyah, they have different format. What are we suppose to be doing here, EAW, English for Academic Writing, we are suppose to be focusing on the language, not on the format.

I: Ok. So, you may have answered this question but, anyway, what is your understanding of the EAW course in CELPAD?

NH: Well, it's a... to me, to me I think I've just answered it. It is like teaching the students how to do or how to prepare their thesis.

I: Ok. So you mean research?

NH: Research. Yea. Research paper.

I: Ok. IN terms of academic writing, what do you think your students will achieve in EAW?

NH: I don't understand that question.

I: Erm... because you described academic writing just now, that is your understanding of academic writing, so... and we have our EAW, but with a slightly erm... different approach to your understanding of academic writing. But, in terms of your understanding of academic writing, what do you think your students will achieve in CELPAD's EAW?

NH: Oh the current... the current course?

I: Emm... hmm

NH: Erm... for me, well, what I wanted them to achieve is different from what they achieve at the end of the semester. What I want them to achieve is actually the language structure. Ok. This is the... this is the way that you are supposed to be writing an academic, I mean an academic err... essay. Ok. But, for our students, at the end of the semester, what they achieve is actually the format, not the language. We, we... if we don't insist, if they put in the language structure, they don't put it. They write as they like. But the format is there.

I: Ok. Do you think EAW is relevant to academic writing?

NH: With the current one, no. Maybe in the future, hopefully yes.

I: Emm... hmm...why?

NH: Like I said, it's teaching them format instead of language structure.

I: Do you think the research writing skills in EAW are relevant to academic writing needed by students in the kulliyahs?

NH: It is not hundred per cent relevant. Maybe about fifty to sixty per cent. Well, they need... they do need some sort of a format but you don't exactly err... kind of, you know, push them to follow the format of a research paper. What we should be looking at would be, you know, are supposed to use this word instead of that word, that's it, that's it basically. But we are not doing that right now.

I: Ok. Do you agree with having one and the same EAW course for all kulliyahs?

NH: Yes. yes.

I: Why?

NH: Because it's language. We... we should stress on the language. So, when language... it's universal. You can cover all kulliyah. Err... the format can be taught but we are not focusing on the format; we are supposed to be focusing on the language. So yea, I do agree.

I: Ok. Do you know about ESAP and EGAP?

NH: No, I've never heard about it.

I: Ok. Err... ESAP stands for English for Specific Academic Purposes, while EGAP stands for English for General Academic Purposes.

NH: Oh, I think the first one ESAP, because E.S.A.P, I think it is some sort like ESP, I think. Not?

I: Err... both belong to EAP, that is also a branch of ESP, but now it's more of the approach. So ESAP, they try to cater to the learners' disciplines, you know. And EGAP, they believe in using, you know, one approach that fits all. So it doesn't really look at the learners' specific disciplines. They believe in using one core...

NH: No, I've never heard about it. Maybe it's a new thing that I haven't actually had the time and look up.

I: Erm... but, do you, you know, get some idea now?

NH: Yea... yea... basic, yes. But if you ask me to explain what it is, I don't think so.

I: Do you think CELPAD's EAW an ESAP or EGAP course?

NH: Let me see. I don't know, it seems to belong under the first... no, not the general purpose. The specific purpose.

I: Emm... hmmm. Now, looking at your students' written work [pointing at the students' research paper], can you please explain which area, in relation to academic writing, relates to the objectives and learning outcomes in the EAW course outline.

NH: Oh. Ok. How do I do this [flipping the pages].

I: You can just give some examples, and perhaps relate it to the learning outcomes or objectives.

NH: Ok. Err... for this particular group of students, erm... under the course objective, I do find that they actually use the appropriate techniques in citing sources, where they actually use erm... the simple past verb to introduce their in-text citation. Like here, they said erm... 'Based on the research conducted by Deragu, Mala, Kituka and Nasiuma (2009), they stated...' So the word, the verb stated is actually used, ok, to indicate that this is something that is done by other researchers. So, they have managed to use that simple past verb. Ok another one is that, I notice that this group also used the appropriate language to review the literature, where they actually started, I mean I can detect that is the starting of their literature review when they said 'Based on the previous literature, the researchers have highlighted the issue of test anxiety and how it effects the academic performance of the students. So basically, yea, this group actually reflected what we have taught in class. They use the right language to present their research paper.

I: Ok. Generally, in terms of academic writing in EAW, what kind of problems do you see among your students?

NH: Ok. The first thing is that they can't develop a proper statement of the problem, because they don't actually know what is a statement of a problem even after explaining. So, in order to counter that, I need for them... I need them to read... err... I need them to actually, you know, err... gather their sources, and ask them to break it down. Ok. So, for them, for me to make it simpler on them is that basically, ok, the loophole of the, what do you call this... the research done previously. Then only they will... then only they can understand what is statement of the problem. Err... they also cannot erm... they don't have a problem for the... for the later part of the research paper. It's just basically the introduction. Especially when it is, like I said just now, SOP and how to actually compare and contrast the literature review. They can come out with the general purpose. That one is easy - the research questions with guidance. But their two major problems would be the statement of problem and the literature review because normally what they do, what they did for their literature review is basically cut paste, cut paste, cut paste; there's no, how do I say this, there's no flow in their literature review. Basically that's the major problem for their research paper. The rest okay.

I: Ok. Do you have any suggestions on EAW to improve your students' academic writing skills?

NH: Well, basically, I guess... I guess it's just, it's just too packed, alright. It's just too packed. Maybe if they could lessen things up, I mean the... the things that you teach in EAW, I think we can achieve better performance in the students. Right now the students have to come out with this, and that, and they have to present some more, so it's a lot. So, maybe, what they can do is basically do not have the presentation, but just have the research paper. That's it. Ok.

I: Ok. Finally, do you have any opinion or comment on EAW?

NH: No, no comment. Basically I've said everything. My... my dissatisfaction is erm... is basically err... on the time frame given for certain topics in EAW, that's it. Like for example, in-text citation is only covered in one week. We can't do that in one week. At least in-text citation will take about two... two

weeks. Two weeks, the most, if they can increase the time for the classes. One and a half hours - there's nothing much that you can do. It's a three-hour course, right. So, if they can extend it to maybe another half an hour, two hour... two hour that I think should be enough to cover in-text citation. One and half an hour is not enough. But the rest, yes. And maybe more exercises. Especially when it comes to literature review. Alright. Ok that's it.

I: Ok. So that is all. Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.